

AN EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS OF SHOCK  
ADVERTISING IN THE TOURISM  
INDUSTRY: THE DESTINATION  
MANAGER AND TOURIST PERSPECTIVE.

Dr Augusta Ifeanyichukwu Evans

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INDUSTRY: THE DESTINATION MANAGER AND TOURIST PERSPECTIVE.**

By

Augusta Ifeanyichukwu Evans

A thesis submitted to the University of Bedfordshire in partial fulfilment of the requirement for  
the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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## **Academic Thesis: Declaration of Authorship**

I, Augusta Ifeanyichukwu Evans,

declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my original research.

An exploratory analysis of shock advertising in the tourism industry: the destination manager and tourist perspective.

I confirm that:

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2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated.

3. Where I have cited the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed.

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6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself.

7. Parts of this work have been published as indicated on page iv.

**Name of candidate: Augusta Ifeanyichukwu Evans      Signature:**

**Date: 13<sup>th</sup> September 2021**

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## **Dedication**

I dedicate this research to God Almighty for the strength that he gave me to complete this thesis. Many a time I thought I could not continue, but his grace and love saw me through. I also dedicate this study to my ever-loving husband Andrew Edafe Evans for all his support and care all through my studies. I am a better person with you by my side.

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# **AN EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS OF SHOCK ADVERTISING IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY: THE DESTINATION MANAGER AND TOURIST PERSPECTIVE.**

Augusta Ifeanyichukwu Evans

## **Abstract**

Starting since the 80s, shock advertising has gained interest at both academic and marketing levels. Its use lies in the real power of grabbing consumer attention and influencing consumer behaviours. Although shock advertising is transversal to many sectors and industries, studies in tourism are quite rare. However, shock advertising has begun to be used to contrast and prevent tourist misbehaviours such as binge drinking, balconing, prostituting, taking illegal drugs, and so on.

A mixed-method approach was implemented, which was based on semi structured interviews with destination managers to see how they understood shock advertising and their willingness to air it on their destinations. Quantitatively, questionnaires were employed, and three ads were presented to tourists in Spain and the United Kingdom. The aim of this study is two-fold, firstly, to examine the destination managers' perceptions of the use of shock advertising in managing tourist misbehaviour and destination image. Destination managers are essential decision makers in the process of designing and planning destination communication campaigns and messages; hence, their perceptions of creative strategies are crucial in understanding the selection of some strategies over others.

Then, the study aims to examine tourists' reaction to the use of shock advertising, their attitude towards such advertisements and most importantly, their behavioural intentions after viewing the ads. Data were inputted into SPSS and ANOVAs were used for data analysis. This was employed to test the hypotheses. The findings confirmed shock advertisements are a useful tool when applied in the right context for changing attitudes and behavioural intentions. This research makes several significant managerial and theoretical contributions and provides preliminary answers to the components of a successful shock ad campaign that can be used in the travel and tourism industries and how it can be implemented. In general, the study also encourages the use of shock ads in the travel and tourism industry and destination management. Finally, implications for both scholars and experts are discussed.

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## **List of Abbreviations**

DM	Destination Manager
UK	United Kingdom
EU	European Union
US	United States
DMO	Destination management organisation
DMC	Destination management company
DAR	Destination Advertising Response
WHO	World Health Organisation
WTO	World Tourism Organisation
ASA	Advertising Standard Authority
CPA	Consumer Protection Act
TDA	Trade Descriptions Act
NTB	National Tourism Board
NPO	Non-profit organisations
ONS	Office of National Statistics
MMR	Mixed-Method Research
OFT	Office for Fair Trading
ELM	Elaboration Likelihood Model
MICG	Malaysian Institute of Corporate Governance
ASCI	Advertising Standard Council of India
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme

PATA	Pacific Asia Tourism Association
OFCOM	Office for Communication
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CAQDAS	Computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software
MANCOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
TURESPAÑA	Institute of Tourism in Spain

# **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

## **1.0 Chapter Overview**

This chapter starts with a brief background of the research and ends with a definition of shock advertising in the context of tourism and destination management organisations. It provides an overall overview of the research. This is presented in sections. Specifically, Section 1.1 is a brief introduction of the study. It highlights the nature and role of shock advertising in the tourism industry from the perception of destination managers (DMs) and showcases its impact on tourists' behavioural intentions. Section 1.2 sets out the domain of the research by investigating the concept of shock advertising, its strategies, and its effect on tourists' attitudes and behavioural intentions. Section 1.3 identifies the rationale for the study, while Section 1.4 outlines the research goals, objectives, and questions. Section 1.5 describes the methods selected for the study, Section 1.6 focuses on the critical and resultant contributions to knowledge. Section 1.7 will outline the structure of the thesis. Finally, Section 1.8 summarises the chapter.

## **1.1 Introduction**

Advertising endorses, reassures, appeals, publicises, notifies, and tries to intensely infiltrate the individual's perception (Vanden *et al.*, 1999). It has become part and parcel of everyday living, with an individual encounter of about 600 adverts a day (Clow and Baack, 2014). Due to an expansion in the use of the internet and other digital channels in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, advertising has evolved dramatically. In recent times, the media sometimes characterises the advertising it airs (Mendelova, 2018). It can also be viewed in terms of spending budget, media, and strategies employed. Dahlén and Rosengren (2016) opined that modern-day advertising is very different than it was in the last decades. For instance, UK advertising spending rose by 5.6% in the third quarter to reach £5.97bn, with a forecast to go over £26bn in 2020 (WARC, 2019).

When one considers the amount of money these organisations pump into advertising, the importance of getting the message to the end consumers successfully cannot be overemphasised. The budgets used for advertisement must be justified in respect to consumers having a positive attitude toward the brand and increasing the likelihood that consumers will buy the product or patronise the brand (Roozen and Meulders, 2015).

Due to the richness of advertising content, it is virtually impassable to take note of them or remember them; hence, in due time, the audience can form the habit of ignoring the large number of advertisements they are exposed to daily (Saad *et al.*, 2015). In today's environment, customers encounter a vast assortment of product claim and promises, and marketers must be able to connect with the end-users and penetrate through the noise and clutter. Albeit marketers must be conscious of the audience's perception and attitude on the advertising message and how it is put across. To attract consumers and maintain a strategic marketing position in a competitive market, more and more organisations are using controversial and distinctive advertisements to remain memorable to the audience (Virvilaite and Matuleviciene, 2013). Distinctive advertising has been employed across various organisations and location contexts such as alcohol promoting (Stautz *et al.*, 2017), sex (Wyllie *et al.*, 2015), for-profit (FP) and not-for-profit (NFP) sectors (Parry *et al.*, 2013), tourism (Dens *et al.*, 2008) and geographical locations (Kumar, 2016; Prendergast *et al.*, 2002). This kind of publication can have positive or negative effects on the target audience, which may, in turn, cause shock and fear (Dens *et al.*, 2008).

Recently, there has been a worldwide tourist influx phenomenon due to the rapid increase of the aeronautical industry, growth in disposable income, affordability of holiday packages (Borradaile, 2012), and their competitiveness which has enabled travellers to consider a vast horizon of destinations to explore. Potentially, there are over 400 million tourists in the world and tourism is said to be one of the fastest growing industries; therefore, the need for marketing becomes necessary because it can serve as a source of income for many countries all over the world (Konglim, 2011). As the number of visitors has soared in many popular cities such as Venice (Bertocchi, 2020), Munich (Namberger *et al.*, 2019), and Barcelona (Koens *et al.*, 2018), the need to deal with issues of over tourism and tourists' misbehaviour like violence, drunkenness, and others has increased. Despite all these, tourism also benefits all its stakeholders in the following areas: generation of income, employability, improved infrastructures, and greater opportunities to negotiate (García *et al.*, 2015).

Tourists' behaviours are a well-studied and documented issue. Although, many researchers have focused on prearrival actions like destination selection, on-destination practices, eco-tourism, and a cross-national comparison of tourism (Loi and Pearce, 2012), there seems to be minimal research on annoying or undesirable tourist behaviour and how it affects both the locals and tourists alike (Moscardo, 1996).

Overall, tourism has a significant effect on the community's philosophy, traditions, attitudes, religious convictions, and ideals of the tourist destination (García *et al.*, 2015). An inflow of tourists can create emotional anguish, congestion, or imperil the customs and communal

reality of the residents of the tourism destination (García *et al.*, 2015). Tourism does not solely exist as a social eyesore, as there are elements of it that can benefit a destination. Nonetheless, there are other aspects needing a little modification. Therefore, understanding behaviours and attitudes is a step in the right direction. Shock advertising is an evocative approach for encouraging individuals to change actions and attitude (Mehta, 2000).

### 1.1.1 Shock Advertising

Shock advertising is an attempt to “surprise an audience by deliberately violating norms or common morals and individual ideals, to capture the attention of a target audience” (Dahl *et al.*, 2003 p. 269). The clothing company, Benetton, is a forerunner in the use of shock advertising to promote their goods and services. In the mid-1980s, Benetton employed a professional photographer Oliviero Toscani to formulate a novel marketing campaign (Wenzel and Lippert, 2008). They started using shock and provocative images, including images related to racism (e.g., a black woman breastfeeding a white baby), religion (e.g., a vicar kissing a nun), hunger (e.g., a spoon attached to a man’s amputated arm), death and disease (e.g., HIV positive tattooed on the arms and bum of an individual), and war (e.g., blood from a soldier killed in Bosnia).

Nevertheless, these styles of advertisement drew a lot of complaints from the consumers who found them too disturbing for children or taboo or breaking the standards and customs of the society. However, these complaints have not stopped organisations from using this marketing strategy. While considerations must be taken about how the effort to shock consumers into changing behaviour or purchasing a product may bring about an increased degree of awareness, there is a likelihood that it may also result in a decreased rate of acceptance and increased degree of discontentment and repulsion (Khandaker and Rana, 2016). This may consequently bring about negative dissonance on the product with the end consumers.

### 1.1.2 Tourism, Tourists, Destination and Destination Managers Organisations (DMO’s)

Tourism is one of the fastest-growing industries. It is predicted that global tourism accounts for at least 1.6 billion travellers and that tourists will spend over US\$2 trillion in the year 2020 (Kotler and Gertner, 2002; Hudson, 2008; Srivastava, 2012 as cited in Matiza and Oni, 2014). According to the UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organisation), there were 1,323 million international tourist arrivals in 2017, which was 84 million more than the previous year. Goeldner and Ritchie (2009) defined the nature of tourism as encompassing four key areas - the tourist, the businesses that provide goods and services to the tourist, the government, or DMs of the tourist destination and the host community or destination. According to

Ghahramani and Zare (2013), tourism is seen from the kind of experiences it provides, which are as follows:

- Entertainment (experiences for delight and fun)
- Educational (a desire for individuals to increase their skills and knowledge)
- Escapist (actively involved destination with stimulating activities that provide an escape for typical day to day activities)
- Aesthetic (destinations with an exciting physical environment and heritage attractions)

Tourism is a multifaceted concept. It means different things to various individuals and can be difficult to define (Borradaile, 2012). The World Tourism Organisation (1981, p. 89) conceptually described tourism as "the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited."

Tourists include international tourists (i.e., travellers from outside the host country or destination) and domestic tourists (i.e., inbound tourists who are individuals from within the country or destination but from different areas; Bowen and Clarke, 2009). Tourists are also grouped into four categories based on their incentives to travel: 1) natural incentives (i.e., activities that help relaxation, such as sporting activities), 2) cultural incentives (i.e., the desire to meet other people, learn, and interact with their cultural heritage), 3) interpersonal incentives (i.e., visiting families and friends), and 4) personal development incentives (i.e., the desire to build self-esteem; Bhatia, 2006).

Tourists can also be defined as people travelling for leisure and other business purposes, health tourism, hedonistic tourism, cultural tourism, and not staying in the host destination for more than one year (Theobald, 1994).

This study focuses on leisure tourists who are visiting the destination for the main purpose of relaxation and holiday. Tourist behaviour is complex, of which many dimensions have been studied. These include the tourist destination decision process, tourists' values, attitudes, and expectations, eco-friendly tourism, self-concept and personality, their views on destination image and their satisfaction, trust, and loyalty. Cohen *et al.* (2014) proposed that tourist behaviour can be grouped and studied in three dimensions: pre-visit, visit, and post-visit behaviours.

Tourists visit a lot of various destinations around the world. The term "destination" can be used for a single location, a combination of areas, part of a tour, or even a cruise" (Pantouvakis and Patsiouras, 2016b, p. 24). This is where a tourist decides to spend their leisure time or for



business beside their usual residence, and could be in a city, town, village, region, on an island, or in a country. An essential component of this research is the interaction between the tourist and their behaviour, attitudes on these destinations, and how the relevant bodies manage them.

Destination Management Organisations (DMOs) are defined as those “organisations which are responsible for the management and marketing of individual tourist destinations” (World Tourism Organisation, 2004, p. 3). DMOs includes participants from stated-owned and profit-making sectors who are vigorously involved in the advancement of a tourist destination, offering data on tourist attractions and events, developing a strong reputation, averting undesirable impacts on the environments, and promoting the right actions between tourists and hosts (Plizáková *et al.*, 2014). According to Durašević (2015), the study of destination management is a vital part of the tourist destination; although, it has become challenging to effectively implement because it is reliant on many factors that are unregulated and uncontrolled. The duty of managing a tourism destination in today’s environment is entrusted to bodies called Destination Management Organisations (DMOs; Durašević, 2015). DMOs engage in a broad range of activities and have the following fundamental functions:

- Helping to generate new income and taxes to contribute financially to the host economy.
- Communicating a good and suitable destination image, such as tourist attractions, to wider potential markets.
- Ensuring there is a clear focus in growing the benefits of tourism.
- Acting as a public representative for protection and legitimacy for individual tourists and group visitors.
- Building the community and enhancing the quality of life for the tourist and host community collectively (Borzyszkowski, 2014).

This study employed two distinct approaches in addressing this – through a qualitative and a quantitative approach. Firstly, for the qualitative section, destinations were chosen based on three criteria: - a) locations with a significant number of tourist arrivals, b) are exposed to shock ads, c) and have incidents of tourists’ misbehaviours.

For instance, Georgia a small country with a population of 3.68 million as at 2015 (World Bank, 2017) yet its total tourists’ arrivals were 6.36 million as of 2016 (Georgian National Tourism Administration Board, 2017). Georgia’s tourism sector is forecasted to grow by 15% in 2017. The heavy reliance and size of the growth of tourism in Georgia is what distinguishes it from other eastern European countries and make it one of the destinations included in this research.

Some of the other destinations studied were Italy, which had 94 million tourists visiting in 2018, and Greece, which had 33 million tourists visiting (Statista, 2020). These vast numbers of tourists were attracted by the lure of sun, sea, drinking, drugs, unsafe sexual activities, and round the clock partying and in these risky environments' tourists engage in all kinds of excessive dangerous behaviour they would not usually exhibit in their home countries (Sönmez *et al.*, 2013).

The quantitative aspect focused on tourists who have visited Spain. This was mainly due to the noteworthy impact that culture can exercise on tourist behaviour (Ng *et al.*, 2007). In using a wide range of destinations in the qualitative research, many obstacles were faced. These were due to cultural differences, language barriers, and large geographical areas. For this reason, the decision was made to be more specific by using only one destination. Spain was chosen as a location because the UNWTO (2019) showed Spain is the second most visited country in the world, just behind France, with 83 million tourists. It is also favoured among Britons in search of good nightlife, partying, risky sexual behaviours, and drugs (Hughes *et al.*, 2009). A popular tourist location, Ibiza, also known as the "party capital," is a known location for excessive use of illegal drugs, violence, binge drinking, and casual sex (Briggs *et al.*, 2011).

## **1.2 Domain of Research**

This research focuses on exploring shock advertising and its relationship to tourists' behaviours, attitudes, and perceptions in the tourism industry. Since the adoption of shock advertising in the 1980's, it is now widely used and almost becoming the norm to discourage or encourage end-users from some adverse health issues such as obesity, cancer, HIV, or the use of safety paraphilias such as seat belts. This research first explores the concept of shock advertising, x-raying its various definitions and components. Secondly, it frames shock advertising within advertising strategies. Thirdly, it analyses the impact of shock advertising on tourists in terms of behavioural and cognitive responses in the tourism industry. The researcher evaluated whether the use of shock advertising within the premise of printed promotional discourse in the tourism industry influenced consumers' attitudes and behavioural intentions. Besides, it investigated the connection between tourism advertising and the audience's perspective, behavioural patterns, and their beliefs that stem from their comprehension of the marketing strategy DMs implemented. Many organisations advertise with the following objectives intents: 1) to increase consumers or company share, 2) to brand awareness and loyalty, 3) to change consumers' trends and patterns, 4) to inform the public about the product, any changes to it, and the quality of product/service, 5) to make people aware of social issues, 6) to change behavioural patterns, 7) to pass on information about

political views, 8) to get donations for charities or remind them to donate, 9) to inform the audience about new social causes, and 10) to create a trend and be innovative (Skorupa, 2014). The researcher reviewed literature on shock advertising and design print advertisements, categorised the essentials, and outlined the categories of shock contents in advertising.

This research studies destinations that already employ shock advertising and explores whether the strategy can be applied effectively in the tourism industry. The destinations that already use and are aware of shock advertising were selected, as message involvement is essential when it comes to evoking fear, shock, and the perceived level of threat as the audience needs to see themselves considering what is being advertised and relate to it (Cauberghe *et al.*, 2009, p. 276). The sections below list the research rationale, aims, objectives, and questions it addressed.

### **1.3 The Rationale for the Study**

There is no shortage of shock advertising today on TV, internet, magazines, newspapers, or billboards. Many times, these adverts are used to discourage individuals from participating in certain activities or using a specific device for their safety (e.g., stop smoking campaign, encouraging healthy eating, wearing of seat belts, charity donations, and stop drinking campaigns). According to extensive research in this area, many of these campaigns have been successful. This explains why this method of advertising is still widely used to get across to the target audience (Chamberlain, 2015). Nevertheless, scholarly studies investigating the practicality of using shock tactics to persuade people to alter their actions have been wide-ranging, remaining "a matter of on-going debate and investigation" (Morales *et al.*, 2012, p. 383).

Global tourism faces many challenges that need addressing, particularly the major issue of annoying tourist behaviours. Therefore, understanding tourists' actions and attitudes is essential. The impact of antisocial and annoying behaviours does not only affect the host community, but also private and public stakeholders, other tourists, and businesses involved directly or indirectly with tourism (Borradaile, 2012). For any economy to sustain and profit from tourism, the satisfaction of the major players is necessary.

Shock advertising has been used effectively in addressing misbehaviours such as reckless driving (Algie and Rossiter, 2010), HIV (Dahl *et al.*, 2003), environmental issues, binge drinking (Becheur and Das, 2017), sexual assaults, violence (Scharrer, 2004), obesity (Charry *et al.*, 2013), and smoking (Veer and Rank, 2012). While there is extensive use of shock advertising in both commercial and social organisations to change consumer behaviours and

attitudes, minimal research has been undertaken on the role and effects of shock advertising on tourism in general, specifically in the destination management. Recently, there has been an enormous emphasis on destination management (Durašević, 2015). Countries that rely on tourism in one form or another have been under immense pressure to develop a modern management approach that will combine all the development achieved, sustain them, and continually produce positive effects for the local tourists' destinations (Durašević, 2015). The progression and sustainability of a tourist destination depends primarily on the destination's capability to manage its resources, involve the activities of DMOs, and effectively link it with neighbouring communities (Plzáková *et al.*, 2014). Tourism has a significant impact on the local community as it affects their customs, attitudes, beliefs, values, and social habits of the inhabitants of the tourist destination; thus, understanding and influencing the behaviour and attitudes of tourists is of great importance for general economy benefit (García *et al.*, 2015).

## **1.4 Research Aims and Objectives**

This research aims to explore the knowledge of the use of shock advertising in the tourism industry in managing tourists' misbehaviour. Unquestionably, there has not been much research on the usefulness of shock advertising compared to conventional advertising as it relates to attention, awareness, memory recall attitude, and behavioural intention. Nonexistence of studies in the application of shock advertising in the tourism industry drives the research aim. Therefore, there is a need to investigate how DMs can employ this strategy to assess the impact it would have on the way tourists perceive the destination. Consequently, semi structured interviews were conducted with DMs to assess their understanding of shock advertising and how it can be employed as a communication tool to disseminate information. Because tourists' perceptions of shock advertising need to be gauged, a questionnaire and three advertisements were formulated. This study aims to identify how shock advertising can change tourists' attitudes, behavioural, and visit intentions. To address the research aims, the following questions were analysed:

- RQ1: How do DMs understand and employ the use of shock advertisements in their advertising campaigns?
- RQ2: What are tourists' attitudes on shock advertising?
- RQ3: How does shock advertising affect tourists' behavioural intentions?
- RQ4: How does shock advertising affect tourists' intentions to visit the destination?

The research objectives have been set as follows:

- To critically review the published literature on shock advertising and its impact on changing attitude, behavioural, and visit intentions.
- To investigate tourists' behaviour and misbehaviour and responses to shock advertising, employing the schema incongruity model.
- To provide recommendations to DMs on how to implement shock advertising strategies.
- To provide evidence on the effectiveness of shock advertising on tourists' misbehaviour in the travel and tourism industry.

## 1.5 Methodology

This research is based on the pragmatism approach. This approach is widely favoured and guided toward solving issues rather than working based on assumptions (Feilzer, 2010). It was deemed appropriate as this research aims to explore and clarify the impact of shock advertising by using a theoretical model with an exploratory approach. It goes on to describe the correlation between the cognitive and emotional responses of the respondents to measure their intended behaviours effectively. The pragmatic paradigm approach is typically used in social and management research as it embraces methods and strategies that are appropriately suited with the value systems applied in this field (Hall, 2013). This research is located under the pragmatic paradigm and was guided towards solving the difficulties and issues around the application of shock advertising and its use and non-usage in the travel and tourism industry.

The research used a mixed-method research design, which was exploratory and sequential in approach, comprised of two phases: a qualitative phase followed by a quantitative aspect (Creswell and Creswell, 2014). The research started with collecting qualitative data using semi-structured interviews. Then after the analysis of the qualitative data were collected, the findings were used in the second phase. The second stage employed questionnaires and manipulated advertisements. Firstly, semi-structured interviews were done with public and private DMs to explore 1) their comprehension of shock advertising, 2) the various features that impact the use of such promotion practices, and 3) if they believe utilizing such approaches will be a successful method of getting the communication to the audience. Secondly, fictional advertisements were designed and used to assess tourists' reactions to the shock advertising, and their perceptions of it. Lastly, a questionnaire was constructed to analyse tourists' responses to the fictional shock advertisements that were produced.

A mixed research design was applied in this study to allow “the researcher to simultaneously answer confirmatory and exploratory questions, and therefore verify and generate theory in the same study” (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003 p. 15). Here, the researcher employed both methods as an accurate means to verify the theory. The exploratory sequential mixed-methods research design was crucial for combining and employing the semi-structured interview data from the qualitative stage and for creating the questionnaire in the quantitative stage (Fetters *et al.*, 2013). Various academics choose a mixed method research (MMR) design to have a better chance for a higher degree of differing viewpoints (Subedi, 2016). Academics use this method when it is essential to “generalize results to different groups, to test aspects of an emergent theory or classification or to explore a phenomenon in depth and then measure its prevalence” (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007, p. 75). It was essential to know what the destination managers understood about shock advertising concepts, ways it is employed, and the core areas that were vital to access after the advertising campaign. This then set the pace for the structure of the questionnaire. Stage 1 was also designed to break the silence and gain an understanding of destination managers’ experiences of the use of shock advertising, as hardly any research in this field exists.

### **1.6 Key Contributions to Knowledge**

The findings of this study make critical contributions to three significant areas of expertise and practice. Firstly, they contribute to the way DMs, as essential decision makers, process, design, and plan destination communication campaigns and messages. They could employ creative strategies as shock advertising. Secondly, the findings show how a theoretical framework can be applied successfully in tourism. Finally, findings demonstrate the impact shock advertising has on tourists’ behaviour and perception of destinations. The first contribution pertains to the application of shock advertising in the tourism industry as it has not been explored to a significant degree. This exploratory sequential study looks at shock advertising from the angle of both the implementer and the receiver as it can be executed in the tourism industry, taking into consideration those factors that may influence its usage or non-usage.

Secondly, since individuals’ schemata influence their decision making, the schemata that DMs possess affect which communication strategies are used and which are not. In some cases, the schema may be incorrect and therefore inhibit the use of effective communication strategies. Also, the schema tourists hold in respect to a destination determines whether they would visit a destination and how they will relate to the mismatch in the shock advertising. DMs must look for innovative ways to improve their communication strategies because if the ad aired is extremely incongruent, tourists would not relate to it, but if it is applied in the right

context and incongruent enough to increase attention, it could lead to positive outcomes such as behavioural changes, memorability, and positive attitude of the advertisement. Finally, the third contribution focuses on the management responses and implication of the use of shock advertising and how this will affect tourists' behavioural intention and propose a practical approach to management.

## **1.7 Structure of the Research**

This study comprises seven chapters. Chapter 1 is the introduction to the study which discussed the background of the study, described shock advertising as a concept, and introduced tourism, the tourist, and DMOs. It also presented the research aims, objectives, research questions, the rationale for the study, and contributions made to the body of knowledge.

Chapter 2 is an extensive systematic review of literature on shock advertising within advertising strategies. This explores components that make a shock advertisement, describes appeals of shock advertising, explains factors that influence its application in the tourism industry, and identifies its effect on tourist attitude and behaviour intentions. Given the limited use of this strategy in the curtailing annoying tourist behaviour, an extensive look at tourist attitudes and behavioural intentions will be explored. This chapter further proposes the theoretical framework that will be used to support the shared knowledge and provide a valid explanation of the effect of shock advertising on tourist behaviour and the factors that influence its implementation as adopted in the tourism industry.

Chapter 3 presents the methodology used to implement shock advertising in the tourism industry. The philosophy used was analysed in conjunction with the characteristics, limitations, and reasons for employing a mixed method. The techniques of data collection will also be discussed in detail.

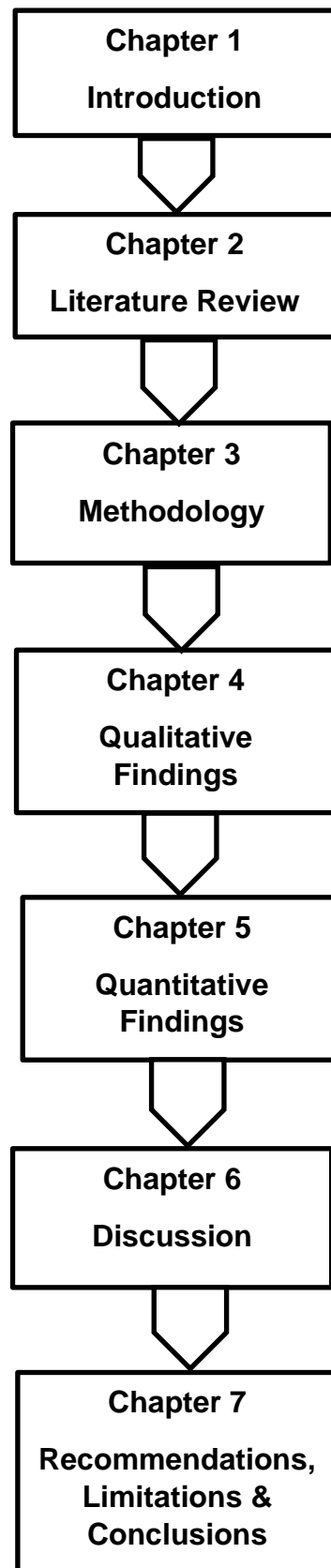
Chapter 4 discusses and evaluates the significant findings from the qualitative data. This includes the data collected from semi-structured interviews with DMs.

Chapter 5 reviews the statistical analysis of questionnaire data collected from tourists. The hypotheses were tested and the correlation between the variables established.

Chapter 6 includes a discussion of the results and evaluates whether the objectives have been achieved. Each research question is examined individually. This provides an understanding of how effective shock tactics execution can be and why tourists may want to engage with the ad and the implications.

Chapter 7 includes a detailed discussion of the reflections and limitations of the research and directions for future studies and suggestions are provided to extend the body of knowledge in the application of shock advertising in the tourism industry. Finally, the conclusion summarises the overall discussion of the chapter and study.

*Figure 1.1: Outline of the Thesis*





## **1.8 Chapter Summary**

This chapter discussed the background of the study and outlined the role and the effect of shock advertising on tourists in terms of their behavioural and cognitive responses. It set out the domain of the study and introduced the research aims, objectives, and questions. The rationale of the study was briefly discussed and linked with the tourism industry sector. The methodology was introduced and critical contributions of the study to the body of knowledge. Finally, the outline of the thesis and what to expect in each chapter were explained.

## CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.0 Introduction

Research focused on shock advertising can be traced back to the early 80s when the Benetton group first utilised it in their marketing campaign. According to Kerr *et al.* (2009), advertising enactment methods that possibly elicit shock are those that show “antisocial behaviour, use of indecent language, nudity, racism, sexism, or executions that include overly personal subject matter” (p. 139). Nonetheless, these styles of advertising have drawn a lot of criticisms from the consumers who sometimes find them too disturbing, taboo, or as breaking the norms and values of the society (ASA, 2012). The advertising standard agency (ASA) found that ads (advertisements) with violence, sexual content and nudity, gender stereotyping, adverts for charity, and public services have raised the most complaints about harm and offence to the public. However, a lot of organisations still employ these tactics. Be that as it may, considerations must be taken as though the effort to shock consumers into changing behaviour or purchasing a product may bring about a high level of awareness (Dahl *et al.*, 2003). There is also a possibility that it may result in a degree of unacceptance and an increased level of displeasure and revulsion, subsequently bringing about a negative dissonance about the product with the end consumers (Urwin and Venter, 2014).

This chapter systematically looks at the literature in four broad segments. Firstly, it reviews the existing literature on the complexity of shock advertising and addresses the difficulty in defining it from the angle of its characteristics and uniqueness. It then looks at the various appeals, how they can be employed, and the use of shock advertisements. It then explores the relationship between shock advertising and its use in social marketing and discusses the following concepts: Who are tourists? Who are the hosts? It begins with the characteristics of tourism and defining annoying behaviour and ends with shedding light on the influence of alcohol, drugs, and violence on tourist misbehaviour and the industry. The last part investigates the roles and types of DMOs and their functions with respect to their differences depending on their organisational structure. Finally, Spain as a tourist destination is explored, shedding light on what makes it a tourist hotspot and how it is managed.

Secondly, the chapter describes the theoretical framework that has guided this research in detail—schema incongruity theory and why it has been favoured in preference to other frameworks. It will also highlight its uses in tourism advertising research. Schema incongruity theory is made up of congruity and the schema theory which have been applied successfully in social psychology and used for explaining attitude formation (Orth and Holancova, 2003) and for the processing and evaluation of behaviour (Alina and Loan, 2013).

## 2.1 Evolution of Shock Advertising

Benetton, with the goal of grabbing consumer's attention and making their brand memorable, broke from the conventional way of advertising through employing shock appeals. They helped raise the bar in using these tactics and paved the way for other companies to follow. They were the forerunner in using advertising to highlight societal problems, adding communal and constructive significance to their promotional activities (Pflaumbaum, 2011).

All the same, this pioneering way of advertising has been criticised for using too much shock tactics, being too gimmicky, and having adverts which occasionally do not correlate with the products. Despite this, Benetton argued they were trying to communicate pressing issues that are affecting the world like poverty, disease, war, political issues, racism, the death penalty, and other social issues that many organisations and individuals are sometimes afraid to discuss (Pflaumbaum, 2011).

Benetton advertisements started with a mild form of provocative imageries and messages in 1984. It slowly intensified to use more preconceived shock tactics such as using pictures of multiracial campaigns, coloured condoms, an ill-stricken man dying of AIDS in his parent's arms, and HIV positive (Hubbard, 1993).

*Figure 2.1: All the colours in the world (Benetton Group, 1984)*



Figure 2.2: Condoms (Benetton Group, 1991)

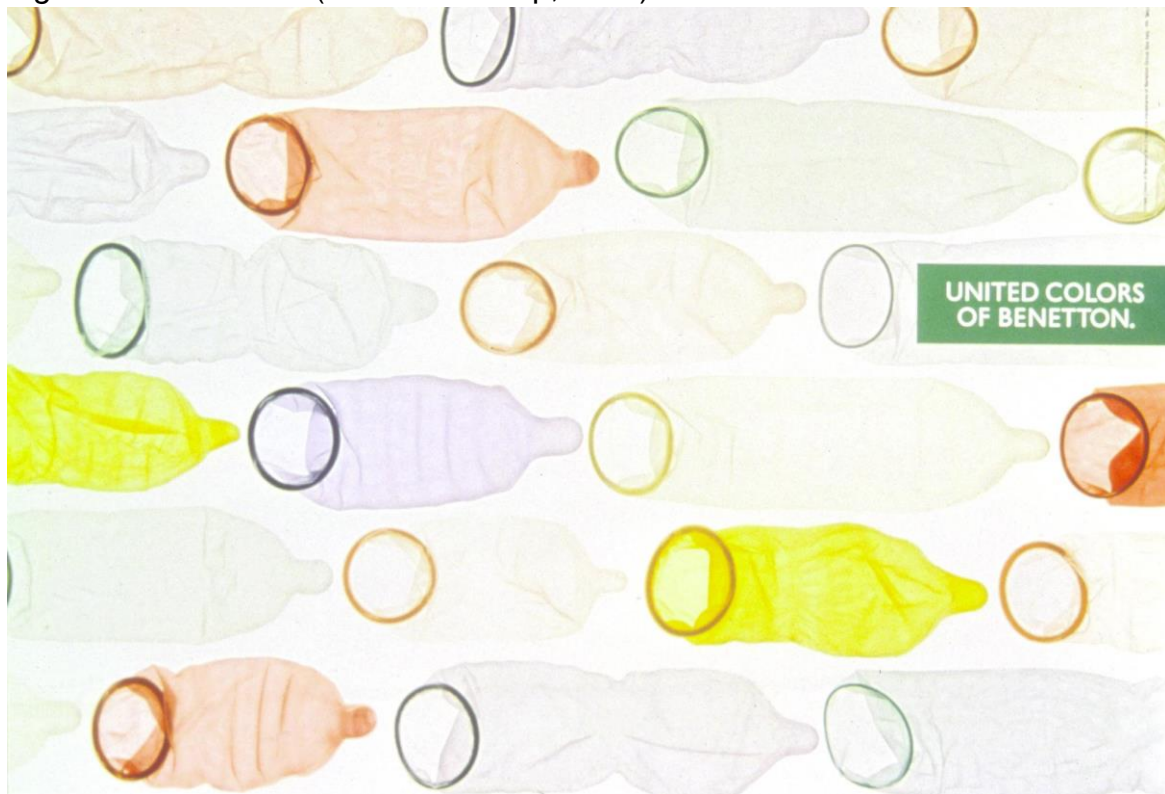


Figure 2.3: AIDS – David Kirby (Benetton Group, 1992)





Figure 2.4: HIV – Positive (Benetton Group, 1993)



However, other clothing and skincare brands like Diesel, FCUK, and Body Shop soon followed this revolutionary method of advertising Benetton started, portraying social-economic and political issues like images of AIDS, racism, wars, poverty, and death row. This made room for what came to be known as the “Benetton-Toscani” effect in advertising (Falk, 1997). Since the adoption of shock advertising in the 1980s, it is now widely used and becoming the norm to discourage or encourage the end-user toward or away from some health issues or safety benefits. Dahl *et al.* (2003) mentioned that shock advertising is now frequently used when promoting a novelty product. Consequently, they queried whether it is as exceptional and “clutter-breaking” as advertisers expected it to be or merely attention-grabbing?

There were a lot of public discourse and heated debates on how the content of an advertisement should be. Most of these criticisms centred on Benetton not paying attention to the severity of the issues it portrays. On the other hand, they were praised for highlighting these social, economic, and political issues. Despite all these, a few of Benetton’s advertisements were banned in various countries and spurred legal actions against the organisation. Benetton, in their defence, issued the statement below about the use of shock images in their advertisement.

“In a modern world awash with advertising and media, it is effortless for a company’s message to be lost in the clutter” (Hubbard, 1993, p.46). Provocative images attract attention, make a

statement, and create dialogue and action. Furthermore, polls indicate that Benetton's target customers (i.e., women between the ages of 18-34) are more socially active and aware than any generation that precedes them. Various studies have shown that in 1992, consumers were as concerned by what a company stands for as they were about the price/value relationship of that company's products. What is provocative to some is entirely appropriate to others. We believe that Benetton's target consumer agrees with our approach and therefore, may be more likely to shop in our stores" (Hubbard, 1993, p. 46).

At the end, it became known that the company's rationale for such advertising, the mixed reception their ads have received, and their acceleration in the industry gave some understanding into the imminent future of advertising and the rise in the use of such tactics in today's marketing campaigns.

## 2.2 Definition of Shock Advertising

Shock advertisements are those that conflict with established expectations, norms, and schema (Stiensmeier-Pelster *et al.*, 1995). They are commonly viewed as advertisements that deliberately, rather than involuntarily, terrify and upset its viewers (Gustaeson and Yssel, 1994). Venkat and Abi-Hanna (1995) defined it as one that calculatedly outrages its audience. It has also been described as "an advertisement that suddenly grabs the viewer's attention by creating a buzz, violating moral or social norms, traditions and customs" (Skorupa, 2014, p. 8). Dahl *et al.* (2003), one of the most quoted authors of shock advertisement, defined it as "a deliberate attempt to startle an audience and thereby violating norms and societal values and personal ideas to capture the attention of a target audience" (p. 269). Dahl *et al.* (2003) additionally defined shock advertisements as including any of the elements, as presented in Table 2.1.

*Table 2.1: Definition of shock advertisement (Dahl et al., 2003, p.276)*

Offence Elicitor	Description
Disgusting images	"References to blood, body parts or secretions, orifices, especially urinary/faecal, gases, odours, disease, parasites, bodily harm (e.g., dismemberment), death and decay
Profanity/obscenity	References to masturbation implied sexual acts, sexually suggestive nudity, or partial nudity
Vulgarity	Swear words, obscene gestures, racial epitaphs
Impropriety	Violations of social conventions for dress, manners, etc.
Moral offensiveness	Harming innocent people/animals, gratuitous violence, or sex, alluding to people or objects that provoke violence (e.g., Hitler), violating standards for fair behaviour (e.g., shooting a person in the back), putting children in provocative situations (e.g., sexual, violent), victim exploitation
Religious taboos	Inappropriate use of spiritual or religious symbols and rituals.

The above definition of Dahl et al.'s (2003) shock advertisement has been argued to be all-inclusive and more customer-focused than the definitions of other authors (Chan *et al.*, 2007). Parry *et al.* (2013) noted that shock advertising includes terms and wordings such as "provocation in advertising" (Vézina and Paul, 1997), "violent advertising" (Andersson *et al.*, 2004), "taboo in advertising" (Sabri and Obermiller, 2012), "offensive advertising" (Waller *et al.*, 2005), and "sex in advertising" (Sengupta and Dahl, 2008). From the definitions, not all the terms used in describing shock advertising can be used synonymously. Some products by their nature can elicit shock. There are four distinct groups of such products (Fam *et al.*, 2004):

- Products that can be used to advertise political parties, religious groups, burial ceremonies, and ammunitions.
- Products that can be associated with a specific gender or sex such as lingerie, condoms, hormonal tablets, tampons, and sanitary products.
- Consumer goods that could be addictive, such as alcoholic drinks, tobacco, marijuana, and gambling.
- Health and beauty products that could be used for extreme weight loss and medications that are used for prevention of sexually transmitted diseases such as HIV and plastic surgery.

This list does not, after all, cover all the aspects of what makes a shock advertisement. There has been a lot of research of shock products like Wilson and West's (1981) 'unmentionables,' which was said to be products or services that can cause fear, cause feelings of aversion, repulsion, shock, or scandal presented in a media channel (Prendergast *et al.*, 2002). In Phau and Prendergast's (2001) research, they found that the most shocking products in Singapore were chat-line services, sexual diseases, and dating services. However, when the same research was carried out in Hong Kong, they found that the most shocking products were chat-line services, funeral services, and gambling (Phau and Prendergast, 2001).

Prendergast *et al.* (2002) found that independent of gender, tertiary education, and mode of advertisement, factors such as religion, culture, age, gender, educational background, and context and content of the message affected a consumer's perception on whether an ad can induce shock or not. Whilst their research was effective in highlighting products that can elicit shock to the end audience, it is essential to study the execution style to be able to understand consumers' reactions to the advertisement (Christy and Haley, 2008).

## 2.3 Characteristics of Shock Advertising

Andersson and Pettersson (2004) defined shock advertising as having three components: a) distinctiveness, b) ambiguity, and c) transgression of norms.

### 2.3.1 Distinctiveness

The advertisement must be something unique, new, and catchy so that it can be memorable and leave an impression on the end consumer. Any imitation or copying will dilute the effect of the surprise element in the advertisement, as it will lose some of its provocative ability. Distinctive stimuli are said to have a positive impact on attention to the ad, memory retrieval, and brand evaluation (Pope *et al.*, 2004). Heckler and Childers (1992) suggested that the discrepancy of the data processed can meaningfully affect the memorisation of the message, as shock advertisement is not usually congruent. The audience is more likely to reflect on the ad as something different.

In looking at the distinctiveness of an advertisement, the theory of adaptation-level can be used in analysing how the consumer reacts to the physical aspect of advertisement (Vézina and Paul, 1997). Helson (1964) argued that perceptions are formed relative to adaptation level which is determined by the previous or current stimuli that a person has been exposed to overtime, but this can change when exposed to new stimuli. He concluded that the distinctiveness of the advertisement correlates with the memorability and attention of the audience. Nonetheless, there was some restriction to this study as the effect of the ad must be looked at with the degree of the audience participation (Andrews *et al.*, 1992).

### 2.3.2 Ambiguity

Ambiguity is when the advertisement means different things and the audience interprets it in different ways. When this happens, it creates a shock effect on the audience as it leaves room for various interpretations. Ambiguity can arise in one of two ways: through the message that the advert passes across and via the intent of the marketer. This, too, is implied when the consumer is found asking questions like: What message is being passed across? What is the relevance of the advertisement to the product?

Howard and Sheth (1969) proposed that stimulus ambiguity can generate excitement, which in turn will produce some experimental behaviour. They defined stimuli ambiguity as “the lack



of clarity of the stimulus display in communicating the descriptive and evaluation aspects of the brand, product class and the nature of motives” (Howard and Sheth, 1969, p. 158). Other research showed that consumers need to have a bit of understanding of the advertisement for persuasion to occur (Vézina and Paul, 1997). Further research is needed to know the level of ambiguity required and its part in the comprehension and understanding of advertisements and consequently, how this will reflect on consumer behaviour.

### 2.3.3 Transgression of Norms and Taboos

Shock tactics are said to be useful when the advertisement is taboo and deviates from the norm. It is one area that can make an ad stand out and grab attention. Advertisement can change the social rules and level of decency. Using sex appeals as an example of breaking the norm has sometimes drawn a lot of complaints and is seen as unethical and unfair, even though it also an effective way of communicating information to the end-users.

Although it has been shown that norm breaking can arouse negative emotions in consumers, Virvilaitė and Matuleviciene (2013) argued that undesirable emotions can inspire customers to purchase a promoted product or service to eliminate the consequences of such emotions. Notwithstanding, shock advertisements do not always connote negative emotions; positive emotions like feelings of excitement are also achieved. Hence, Krstic (2007) and Sabri (2012) stated that shock advertisements can positively or negatively influence buyers' consideration or opposition to such advertisements.

Advertisements are thought to generate “shock” when they encroach upon an individual’s shared customs and morals, irrespective of whether it falls under sexually inappropriate, rude, or visually unappealing (Dahl *et al.*, 2003). The component of surprise is what makes these ads memorable and useful, but their use is now becoming more common, and sometimes, this element can be lost.

For an advertisement to be successful and achieve what it intends to achieve, one must put themselves at the receiving end of the information. For instance, putting oneself in the shoes of the audience may help a person imagine how the audience would react to the advertisement. Banyte *et al.* (2014) proposed that to achieve a maximum emotional effect of advertising, it should arouse optimistic feelings of the viewers. A negative emotion is usually always produced (e.g., feeling of fear, irritability, and disgust). This may be because the consumers do not see the correlation between the advertisement and the product or do not understand why the shock appeal was used to portray the message. However, for behaviour patterns to change, the consumer needs to experience positive emotions and reactions to

shock advertising. Positive emotions are compelling, as they affect the most subtle element of the viewer (i.e., emotions as they acquire an increasingly strong emotive form).

## **2.4 Consumer Reaction to Shock Advertising**

Shock advertisements are creative and captivate consumers. To be effective, they must affect the will and feelings of the end users. One of the biggest challenges that marketers face in using shock advertising is that sometimes there is no middle ground—it can either be a complete success or disaster. Understanding consumers' attitudes, behaviour, reactions, and emotions in response to an advertisement is of paramount importance and various researchers have conducted ongoing studies in this area. Consumers see and react to an advertisement in several ways. Some see the advertisement as a whole picture while others may see it as an emotion. Williams (2009) identified three main consumer reactions to shock advertising:

- **Target Consumer Response:** This is the expected reaction when the advertisement was aired. The consumers see the ad, it grabs their attention, and it produces relative behavioural expectations. This kind of response creates an increase in product awareness and a positive relationship with the brand and the audience. Marketers generally hope for this kind of response when they air their advertisement. The thought behind this is that once a consumer builds trust with a brand, they will be willing to make a favourable purchase decision and repeat purchases. Shock advertisements are beneficial in capturing the consumer's attention but may sometimes fail to change the behavioural pattern of the end-user.
- **Incidental Consumer Response:** As the name implies, this is an unexpected reaction that happens by coincidence. This reaction could be a feeling of disgust, complaints to the relevant bodies, and possibly a decrease in sales and negative implications to the company brand image. Shock advertising can sometimes capture the consumer's attention but not necessarily change behaviour or have a positive effect on the company's brand image. Banyte *et al.* (2014) proposed the following reactions from the consumer, such as seeing the product as shocking, a public scandal, spreading of adverse attitude, complaining to regulatory bodies, a refusing to buy goods or paying for products or services.

- **Reverse Consumer Response:** This is also known as the “boomerang” effect; it is a situation where the advertisement does the opposite of what it was meant to do. Researchers think this may occur because of an overly shocking ad. The consumer’s behaviour changes, making them behave in total contradiction to what the organisation was hoping to achieve. An organisation may feel the desperate need to maintain a market share and retain customers, and therefore may be tempted to over-advertise and thereby stand a risk of initiating this behaviour from the consumers. Consumers can then choose to completely ignore the brand if they feel manipulated by the advertisement.

## 2.5 Social Marketing

Social marketing can be defined as the use of marketing principles and methods to encourage a specific audience to take, refuse, alter, or dismiss behaviour for the good of the community, group of individuals, and an organisation (Kotler and Gertner, 2002). It can also be defined as “the application of marketing discipline to social issues and causes [that] provides a framework for developing innovative solutions to social problems that have long perplexed and frustrated us” (Lefebvre, 2013, p. 4).

Social marketing employs several marketing principles, methods, practices, behavioural theories, and models for encouraging behavioural alteration in the community against societal problems (Dann, 2010). Social marketing is also part and parcel of the subset of commercial marketing thought (Bhat *et al.*, 2019). This can also include attempts to persuade change in individuals that have adopted undesirable habits and focus on preventing the advancement of detrimental habits among individuals in the society (Andreassen, 2006). Social marketing can help individuals modify their detrimental behavioural patterns to a more sustainable behaviour. Social marketing studies can stimulate successful societal change (Allred and Amos, 2018). Although there are many definitions of social marketing, French *et al.* (2011) summarised it into these three main elements:

- Its primary aim focuses on attaining precise behavioural objectives.
- It employs principles, policies, and strategies to bring about a societal change.
- Finally, it is usually a step-by-step process that is defined by learning and evaluation.

In general, social marketing falls under two main approaches (Hall, 2015). Glenane-Antoniadis *et al.* (2003) defined the approaches as either “traditionalists” or “convergenents.” The first

approach, “traditionalists,” use the marketing mix principles profit-making organisations in their campaigns employed. This is normally done by employing strategies that produce optimal economic benefit to the organisation (Glenane-Antoniadis *et al.*, 2003, p. 326). Conversely, the latter approach combines various tools and strategies that go one step further than the traditionalists. This research falls into the second category as we employ shock tactics which are sometimes used in marketing but can be employed in other sectors targeting the emotional, rather than rational, reactions from the audience. It aims to identify profound ways in which DMs can use policies and strategies to bring about a behavioural change in tourists, educating them in the vices of misbehaviour in the destinations.

There is a relationship between social marketing and the welfare of individuals. Hence many of its programmes are aimed at community issues such as violence, drinking, health issues, and other vices. These intervention goals aim to prevent detrimental behaviours and encourage healthy behaviours within the populace (Carvalho and Mazzon, 2015). According to Parkinson *et al.* (2018) a vast majority of studies in social marketing rely on the dependent variable of consumers’ behavioural intentions, such as in the situation of alcohol usage (Rundle-Thiele *et al.*, 2015). Coffman (2002) suggested that advertisements can be employed with other marketing strategies to change individuals’ behaviour and attitudes, such as the use of illegal drugs, violence, and alcohol consumption.

According to French *et al.* (2011) social marketing’s principal objective and goal is to attain specific societal good and certain behavioural intentions. It comprises of a fixed and articulate set of models and beliefs which use strategy creation, policy improvement, and execution of community transformation programmes. Systematic processes guide its principles and learning, and evaluation define it with the aim of increasing the appropriateness of a social norm while positively influencing the behaviour of a target group (Lee and Kotler, 2011). Hence, most health-conscious social campaigns use the same strategies that are implemented in commercial marketing with the sole aim of changing individuals’ behaviours (Nevill *et al.*, 2014). One of the main objectives of this research is to investigate the application of shock tactics using print content in the tourism sector, and this will be examined from a social and commercial perspective.

Commercial and non-profit organisations employ the use of shock tactics to grab attention to appeal to their audience’s emotions. Shock advertisements are said to entice advertisement-related debates among the audience and draw attention to issues (Fill, 2011). They are said to be effective in promoting certain behaviour changes and discouraging adverse actions (Skorupa, 2014). In summary, the main aim of social marketing is to influence behaviour for

individual and societal benefits. In doing so, social marketing uses a variety of research models and techniques to fully comprehend why individuals behave in a certain manner and how they can maintain and conduct themselves in a manner that will benefit them and society at large (Gheorghe *et al.*, 2017).

## **2.6 Commercial and Non-profit Organisation Context**

### **2.6.1 Non-profit Organisations**

Non-profit organisation advertising, also sometimes known as social marketing, is used to address various pandemics or antisocial behaviours in society and "sell" ideas, attitudes, and behaviours. The use of social marketing has been around for a while now and has been used to encourage the public to comply with using seat belts, stop drunk driving behaviours, quit smoking, reduce obesity, and improve heart conditions. This is an effective way to show the use of taxpayers' money and help reduce costs in health care and other sectors (Brennan and Binney, 2010). It is now commonplace for shock advertisements to be used in charitable organisations such as ads showing child abuse, animal cruelty, and poverty.

Shock images in a social context can act as an effective educational tool, but this requires ads come across in such a way that is delicate and does not bring about unwanted responses from the consumers (Banyte *et al.*, 2014). Although there has been some conflicting research in this area on the effectiveness of such campaigns (Brennan and Binney, 2010; Rothschild, 2005), shock tactics and threat appeals are used commonly to accelerate large-scale deviations in behaviours and attitudes (Sutton, 1992) in social marketing. For instance, The People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals (PETA) used shock advertising to draw attention and interrupt social practices against animals and help individuals turn away from current treatment to animals that may harm them (Matusitz and Forrester, 2013). Although these advertisements were said to be effective in bringing about behaviour change, according to the Ipsos MORI for the ASA (2012) research, many children were upset or bothered by charity adverts with shocking images. Some felt upset by the adverts themselves, while others were worried because they wanted to help the cause but were unable to do so and these adverts were also a concern for parents.

The use of sex appeal to pass on public announcements is one area that has been increasingly used in social marketing. Nudity is sometimes displayed to discourage sexually transmitted diseases, advertise condoms, breast cancer, and other diseases. From the ASA's (2012)

research, many consumers were not worried by the current level of sexual content and nudity in advertising per se, describing it as relatively shocking compared to other types of media. Mittal and Lassar (2000) argued that consumers found explicit, sexual ads as immoral and unacceptable and recounted consistently unfavourable attitudes toward the ads. Also, adverts can be very demeaning to women and arouse a feeling of negative emotion. In their research on road safety in Spain, Castillo-Manzano, Castro-Nuño, and Pedregal (2012) found that the use of shock images helped reduce accidents but only a moderate level should be used as there was no difference in a higher threat level effect and a lower one.

An ASA report noted that there is accepted tradition that charitable organisations are granted more flexibility than other advertisers when employing shock images considering what their aims are (Parry *et al.*, 2013). Charity and governmental organisations' use of shock ads is riskier because taxpayers and charity donations fund them (West and Sargeant, 2004), and this could lead to an increased number of complaints. On the other hand, consumers are more tolerant as they know the organisations are not trying to influence them to buy their products but to pass on important public information and change behaviour.

Non-profit organisations frequently help in implementation of social behavioural changes in societies (Dahl *et al.*, 2015). There are numerous researchers in social marketing that employed shock imageries, like animal rights and cruelty, alcoholic drinks, illegal drugs, and cigarettes (Allred and Amos, 2018). Many of these studies have been concerned about the effects of these ads on behaviour avoidance and modification (Dahl *et al.*, 2015; Morales *et al.*, 2011). A vast amount of research has concentrated its efforts on social marketing in public health and societal causes. However, this concept can be applied to other sectors such as environmental conservation, poverty alleviation, tourism sustainability, and promotion (Bhat *et al.*, 2019). However, there is no research on the role that shock ads would play in behavioural avoidance and modification in the context of tourism sector.

### 2.6.2 Commercial Organisations

Since Benetton's first use of shock advertisements in the mid-80s, it has become a commonplace practice for commercial organisations to use this form of marketing tactic to attract public awareness surrounding issues, increase sales, and break through the clutter and noise in today's competitive marketing environment (Pflaumbaum, 2011). There have been a lot of complaints and issues surrounding the use of shock tactics. For instance, Benetton ads have been shown to communicate social-economic issues but are viewed as unrelated to the

advertised product and providing very little information on how to offer possible solutions to such issues (Parry *et al.*, 2013).

Despite all these issues and complaints in using shock advertisements, it has also received a lot of praise and commendations for its innovative ways of raising public awareness. Meijer (1998, p.235) argued that because of its intrusiveness and memorability, shock advertising “stimulates people to think about themselves in terms of liberal or conservative, masculine or feminine or even black or white”.

There has been a rise in fashion brands using shock advertisements such as the show of nudity, skinny models, and suggestions of sex in their adverts as evidence has shown it helps sell consumables (Banyte *et al.*, 2014). The importance of using images like this to sell clothes is becoming a more popular trend and a retailer seen using these images is sometimes seen as innovative, trendy, and not boring (Banyte *et al.*, 2014). Organisations are constantly trying to retain their market share and make consumers loyal to their brands. Hence, organisations try to make their opinions on controversial topics and sore questions known to get people talking about their brands. Diesel and Virgin are examples of these brands and have been noted for their sharpness and shock tactics used (Banyte *et al.*, 2014).

## **2.7. Uses of Shock Advertising**

### **2.7.1 The Use of Shock Advertising In Social Marketing**

Many profit and non-profit organisations are progressively depending on shock tactics to raise awareness on social ills and adverse behaviours as they are confronted with competition and pushed by an urge to stand out. Social campaigns usually employ strong emotional content to get their desired reactions and is usually aired to a variety of audience profiles (Albouy and Décaudin, 2018). According to Becheur and Das (2017), it is commonplace to use shock appeals in social campaigns in many developed countries; even in the United States, there is a lot of blood, gore, death, and violence displayed in many advertisements.

According to Donovan and Henley (2003), social advertising is formulated to change the deliberate and unintentional actions of a group of individuals and promote the well-being of the community. Social campaigns are used to address several antisocial behaviours and widespread diseases to alter individuals’ risky behaviours. They have been used to address numerous issues such as the spread of HIV, smoking, binge drinking, domestic violence, and depletion of the natural environment and resources (Gebreselassie and Bougie, 2019). The

spread of these societal issues in developed and developing countries shows that individuals are not necessarily making the right behavioural and attitude alteration and a lot still needs to be done (Terblanche-Smit and Terblanche, 2013). Various commercial organisations employ shock tactics to promote products such as mobile phones, holidays, and cars.

The relevance of social marketing for governmental, nongovernmental, and commercial organisations cannot be underestimated in the role it plays in creating awareness of social vices, attitudes, and behavioural changes. Commercial organisations also use these tactics to promote a cause, also referred to as “cause-related marketing,” by either contributing to charity organisations or advertising to raise awareness of a problem (Xu and Zhou, 2020). They are also used to promote a positive communal and ecofriendly health and welfare (Lenox and Eesley, 2009; West and Sargeant, 2004). Social marketers tend to stand out by depending on techniques such as educating individuals against the vices of their behaviour and shock appeal advertising (Nielsen and Shapiro, 2009). A veritable means of encouraging individuals is to employ shock advertising that intentionally intrudes upon communal values in the hope of highlighting awareness of societal vices. In implementing shock strategies, these campaigns mitigate the masses’ insensitivity to charity donations (West and Sargeant, 2004). Shock tactics are usually employed to help increase consciousness and confront established attitudes (Witte and Allen, 2000).

In recent times, due to the pursuit of critical transformation, there has been much evaluation of the efficacy of shock tactics as a technique for influencing behaviour (Terblanche-Smit and Terblanche, 2013). These campaigns are usually aimed at influencing the audiences’ behavioural patterns and habits, such as risky sexual behaviours. They also target emotional response of the audience. Consequently, social advertising should impact the behavioural intentions of the audience towards the campaign (Shimp, 2010). However, there are conflicting results of the impact of such shock tactics on behavioural and attitude change and their effectiveness (Zlatevska and Spence, 2012).

For instance, Terblanche-Smit and Terblanche (2013) found no evidence that advertising inducing shock changed risky sexual behaviour. Gallopel-Morvan *et al.* (2011) stated emotional responses are triggered when shock and graphic images are shown to an audience to impact their behaviours and attitudes. The impact of these graphic images has been studied in social marketing. They have the potency to limit or discontinue smoking through inciting feelings of fear, repulsion, and apprehension, and tend to be more effective than words (Gallopel-Morvan *et al.*, 2011; Hammond *et al.*, 2004). Kee *et al.* (2006) also supported this view and acknowledged that graphic pictures, when combined with caution labels and messages, tended to have a much higher behavioural intention with individuals to stop



smoking. Wakefield *et al.* (2003) found shock tactics helped increase awareness about the adverse effects of smoking. Hence, some governmental organisations have taken drastic steps toward changing smokers' behaviours. For instance, since 2001, 28 countries, including the UK, have announced that all tobacco products sold have shock graphic images and warnings (WHO, 2009).

This is also the situation with alcohol, as advertisements with warning messages are found to decrease detrimental alcohol intake and binge drinking in young adults. Comparing alcohol warnings with non-alcoholic advertisements, respondents drank less when they saw the latter (Stautz and Marteau, 2016). For instance, governmental bodies aimed to decrease the intake of excessive alcoholic beverages using threatening advertising campaigns that highlight the adverse effects of alcohol consumption. However, there is limited proof of the effectiveness of such strategies (Stautz *et al.*, 2017). Pilling and Brannon (2007) also confirmed this and found shock advertising can increase awareness of communal expenditures that are associated with binge drinking.

Some researchers have found a rise in using graphic messages in social marketing can be counterproductive (Stautz and Marteau, 2016). In some cases, these advertisements can cause a rise in individuals discouraged behaviour (Capella *et al.*, 2008). It is also essential to ascertain the level of shock needed for behavioural and attitude change as there is no unified level of shock (Veer and Rank 2012). The rating of graphic images and words are tremendously subjective; what one individual finds dreadful, another does not.

In using shock advertising, marketers should consider the product and services advertised, the media in which it will be displayed (e.g., television, radio, prints, online, billboards), the creative execution of it, the type of organisation using it (i.e., commercial or non-profit organisations), geographical locations, and the audience (i.e., the ad's target consumers, the consumers who they ad campaign recognises but does not explicitly target, and others who may come into contact with the message).

## **2.8 Appeals of Shock Advertising**

Advertisers can create various forms of appeals by the kind of information they provide to the audience (Kazakova, 2016). According to Clow and Baack (2014), marketers formulate their advertising message by employing one or a combination of appeals. Understanding the type of appeal employed in the message is very crucial to fully grasp and remember the advert. It is known in marketing that advertisers use mainly three types of promotional and persuasive

strategies: rational, emotional, or ethical appeals. Rational persuasion strategies are based on giving the audience the product information. Emotional appeal strategies are driven by the audiences' gut feelings and subconsciousness about the risks and rewards in buying the product. Ethical appeal strategies rest solely on communal norms and individual values. The more significant ethical values are to an individual, the greater the likelihood the strategy will encourage attitude and behavioural change. Shock advertising falls under the emotional appeals category and is sometimes viewed as unethical (Bhatia, 2019). Social marketing campaigns often employ emotional appeals to incite compliant behaviours from the masses (Brennan and Binney, 2010).

Clow and Baack (2014) proposed emotional appeals are pictorial messages that relay feelings such as terror, love, relationship, loyalty, and safety. They are used as a stimulus to promote brand loyalty and change audience behaviour. Instances of these are highway safety adverts, cancer examinations, and HIV/AIDS campaigns. Shock stimulated in accidental contact to factual visuals is effective and results in persuasive passionate appeals with considerable impact on a consumer's actions and response (Banyte *et al.*, 2014). Williams (2009) suggested shock advertising is useful because it triggers the most sensitive part of the consumer's perception, which is emotions.

Guttman (2015) suggested two categories of emotional appeals, which are positive and negative emotional appeals. Positive emotional appeals have a beneficial impact on the audience to alter their behaviour. For example, motorway safety ads usually prompt negative emotional appeals like airing incidents and collisions. If positive emotions are triggered, the viewers may not take this seriously and consequently may not lead to behavioural change (Guttman, 2015). On the other hand, negative emotions are frequently employed in consumer advertising to sell goods that appeal to individuals' needs to adapt to communal norms (Bearden and Rose, 1990). However, if an advertisement is too negative, consumers may distance themselves from the use of such products (Williams, 2009). For marketers to achieve effectiveness of an ad, they must try to understand the way various individuals will react to it emotionally.

In this research the following three types of appeals were addressed: a) sex appeals, b) fear appeals, and c) violent appeals. These appeals were chosen as they are frequently used in advertising campaign. Studies have shown an increase in the use of nudity and explicit sexual content in print advertising (Wyllie *et al.*, 2014). For example, the Kaiser Family Foundation (2006) research found as many as 70% of television shows included some sexual content. ASA (2019) stated that the "use of sexual imagery or language in advertising often draws complaints. This might include implicit or explicit references to sexual intercourse, gratuitous

images, or innuendo. References to sexual intercourse, masturbation or oral sex can shock, especially if they do not have any relevance to the product being advertised or are too explicit” (p. 1).

Fear is one of the utmost elementary emotions’ individuals can encounter. It is essential to discuss fear appeal because most health campaigns like smoking, obesity, and cancer employ this style of tactic. Activating fear is often quoted as the purpose for organisations to employ threatening communication. The objective for most organisations is to challenge individuals with the adverse implications of any given risky behaviour, and this research brings to attention tourists’ misbehaviour and their consequences. In terms of antismoking advertisements, content that air adverse health implications combined with emotional and shock messages have been found more effective in behavioural and attitude changes among smokers (U.S. National Cancer Institute, 2017).

Finally, violent appeals were employed in this research due to many vices and complaints that are received in the use of such advertising tactics. According to Gurrieri *et al.* (2016), “the five most shocking issues in advertising are death, suffering, nudity, sex and violence” (p. 1449). Violence is seen as generating the most negative consumer reactions than any of the other four vices in advertising (Manceau and Tissier-Desbordes, 2006). ASA stated violent content in advertising offends one in nine adults (ASA, 2012).

### 2.8.1 Sex Appeals

Reichert *et al.* (2001) defined “sex appeal as messages that are brand information in advertising contexts or persuasive appeals in marketing contexts” (p. 14). They are associated with sensual material and words that arouse erotic feelings and moods. Sex appeals have been used since the 1960s and are increasing in western countries as marketers seek more innovative and creative ways to break in a competitive environment (LaTour and Henthorne, 1994). Sex appeals involve the show of nakedness and suggestiveness (Bello *et al.*, 1983). Sex and nudity in advertising is one form of shock tactic in marketing (Ford and LaTour, 1993). An example is the Benetton ad where a priest was kissing a nun. Sex appeals have witnessed substantial growth and usage in attracting the audience to an organisation’s advertisement (Duncan, 2002). Nonetheless, due to a globalisation of the world markets and rise of the use of media and its effects on consumer behaviour, there has been an increase in the use of sex appeals in other cultures and countries (Anabila *et al.*, 2016). The use of sex appeal in advertising is becoming the norm and seen as trendy and modern. Many commercial and non-

commercial industries use crude language, sexual display, and nudity to advertise various products and services like clothing, makeup, perfume, cars, alcoholic drinks, home, and food.

Sex appeals are widely used because they are known to grab attention and are an effective way to generate sales. Sex appeals can also be a very controversial topic as many see them as immoral and unsuitable and less effective than it is portrayed to be. There is contradicting evidence that sex appeals can grab attention, increase attention, and improve sales (Reichert *et al.*, 2001). Some research has shown sexual messages and ads reduce consumers' recollection and appreciation of a brand (Alexander and Judd, 1978). Sex appeals can be shocking to the audience, but it should be noted that the appropriate use of nakedness and sexual message may not be considered as such (Richmond and Hartman, 1982).

Irrespective of the advantages of sex appeal in advertising like attracting initial attention, evoking emotional responses, increasing persuasion, and buying intention, it should be noted that other variables affect the perception of the advertisement from the consumer's point of view. Other variables like personality, educational qualifications, religion, culture, values, beliefs, legal, and public morality need consideration. Also, one implication of the advertisement to the organisation's image and reputation could be loss of trust and perceptions of an inferior product (Peterson and Kerin, 1977). Organisations that use nudity could be seen as unequal in their organisation practices (Ford and LaTour, 1993). The difference between gender perceptions of sexual adverts is another vital area to be looked at when marketers use this appeal, as it is suggested men will view an ad with a sexual image more positively than a nonsexual image. On the contrary, women are more likely to demonstrate an improved attitude with a platonic ad compared to a sexual one (Dahl *et al.*, 2003). Marketers who know their target audience can decide how their advertisement campaign will be planned out.

### 2.8.2 Fear Appeals

Fear is defined as an undesirable emotive response to surrounding threats (LaTour and Rotfield, 1997). Witte (1992) defined fear appeals as "persuasive messages that arouse fear by depicting a personally relevant and significant threat, followed by a description of feasible recommendations for deterring the threat" (p. 330). Fear appeals can be grouped into real fear (i.e., when harm can be done to an individual) and social anxiety (i.e., relates to fear of rejection and not fitting in; Laroche *et al.*, 2001).

LaTour and Zahra (1989) proposed fear appeals have been frequently employed in advertising since the 1960s. However, in the 1970s, marketing did not give enough attention to the possible use of fear because studies had concluded "the more the fear, the less the effect,"

and it was effectively an unused but readily available weapon (Mukherjee and Dube, 2012, p.147). Fear appeals could result in people buying products or services out of fear rather than because they have a need for them. There is a correlation between fear and persuasion, so knowing the optimal level of fear can bring about effectiveness in the advertising campaign.

Fear appeal comprises of two fundamentals: tension and energy arousal (LaTour and Rotfield, 1997). Tension arousal is defined as tension, stress, and jittery feelings, while energy arousal is characterised by feelings of vigour and pep (Mukherjee and Dube, 2012). Fear arousal can be useful in communicating issues such as health problems. Though, when arousal is increased to an optimal level, it can become aversive, producing a boomerang effect which results in defensive responses (Mukherjee and Dube, 2012). Fear appeals can cause emotional trauma because of highly graphic and disturbing images, causing the consumer to somewhat disengage from the message instead of leading to a change in behaviour (Brennan and Binney, 2010). The intensity of the fear advertisement—none, moderate, or high—is also an essential factor that should be considered because the levels can affect consumer reactions differently. Stern (1988) proposed fear appeals can be looked at from these angles: the degree of it (i.e., high vs. low), the type used (i.e., physical, or social), positioning, and the execution styles (i.e., how it comes across to the audience).

### 2.8.3 Violent Appeals

Violent advertisements can be defined as “an explicit act of force destined to injure or kill, or the expression of any serious threat to injure or kill a character, whether human or human-like, regardless of the context in which the act occurred” (Gosselin *et al.*, 1997, p. 143). Many individuals are exposed to violence online via computer games, TV, radio, and music. The effect of violence in society is well published and known—domestic violence increased gun crimes and aggressive behaviours in children and adults are increasing. However, there is minimal research on violence in an advertising context, and this may be because we spend a lot of time digesting these items or it is gradually becoming the norm and less attention is paid to the reasons behind the use of such tactics in advertising. The questions that remain are whether violent advertising is seen as always wrong or if it can be used to keep and sustain audience attention, remain memorable, change behaviour, and arouse emotions?

Violence is linked to different forms of promotional appeals such as fear appeals (e.g., for stop smoking campaigns), informational appeals, and shock appeals (Jones *et al.*, 2010). ASA research in the UK found 30% of young people (ages 11-16 years) and adults have been bothered about an advert that contained violent and scary images. Violent advertising can be

known to cause fear, although not all fear appeals are violent. Violent advertisements can be used to pass on information (e.g., in violent video games) or provide information to the public.

Jones *et al.* (2010) identified six factors that may influence the appropriateness of an advertisement that depicts violence, and they are “intensity of the violence, congruence between violent content and the product or message, it’s perceived intention, legitimacy of the violent content, identification with the victim and the extent of power imbalance between the victim and aggressor” (p. 18). Intensity can be defined as “the extent to which an advert displays violence as the powerful, forceful, explicit, and graphic presentation of violence” (Jones *et al.*, 2010, p. 18). Congruence relates to the extent to which the product and advertisement are consistent. For instance, some products are violent and need to be advertised in such a manner (e.g., violent video games and guns). The audience passes judgment on the marketer’s perceived intentions for advertising their goods or services using such brutal techniques. Violent advertisements can be regarded as positive if used to encourage behaviours, such as reduce gun crimes in society, or as negative if the ad is inappropriate for the targeted audience (e.g., too much violence in a computer game made for children). Identification can be looked at as the level and extent to which the audience has a social connection with the characters of the advertisement. According to social identity theory, people have a feeling of belonging and association with group members (Tajfel and Turner, 1986). Finally, power balance is the level of empowerment of the characters in violent advertisements. The subjects harmed in ads are victims, while the empowered subjects are the perpetrators. There are advantages to using violent images in marketing, such as encouraging a change in behaviour and highlighting social-economic issues. Nevertheless, advertisements that depict victimisation, dehumanisation, or unnecessary suffering may leave the company brand with a bad image.

## **2.9 Shock Advertising in Tourism**

Effective communication is said to be successful in altering behaviour. Local authorities and other governmental bodies employ various means to convey information, enlighten the community, in-still consciousness, and alter behaviours, together with advertising (GCS, 2014). The travel and tourism sector employs numerous types of advertising techniques as vital instruments of communication. For instance, a superb means of reaching tourists is to advertise in airlines glossy magazine, at the destination’s hotel check-in, or in in-room literature (Evans *et al.*, 2019).

Many of these destinations employ enticements together with communication to change tourist behaviour. For instance, tourists visiting Venice are expected to behave in a certain way and are fined for misbehaving. The local council launched a campaign, #EnjoyRespectVenezia that employed social platform, web page, banners everywhere in the city, and leaflets at crucial places such as bus stops to caution tourists of the effect of their unruly behaviour on the host community and the environment (Evans *et al.*, 2019). In other instances, tourists could be given fines for dropping litter, destructing plants, seats, statues or public infrastructures or nudity (Independent, 2017). Campaigns of this nature are becoming important with the influx of tourists and the significance of tourism to the host countries increases (WTO, 2018). Messages can be presented in various means such as using shock visuals, scary wordings, commentary, or any mixture of these to provoke awareness and alteration of unruly behaviour (Dahl *et al.*, 2003). The efficacy of such campaigns is well documented, however not including the matter of tourist misbehaviour (Evans *et al.*, 2019). Examples of such destinations that has used shock imagery are: (a) the 'CU "IN THE" NT' campaign of the Northern Territory, (b) "Vilnius: "The G-spot of Europe" by the Lithuania Tourism Board and (c) Fiji Me campaign by Fiji Tourism, nobody knows where it is, but when you find it – it's amazing. These shock ads have been used as a promotional tool to draw attention rather than raise awareness of social issues. Nonetheless, there is limited research on the effect of shock advertising in tourism sector, thus the need for this study to investigate the effect of such campaigns, especially in curtailing troublesome tourists' behaviour.

Figure 2.5: CU “IN THE” NT’ campaign of the Northern Territory (NT Official, 2016)

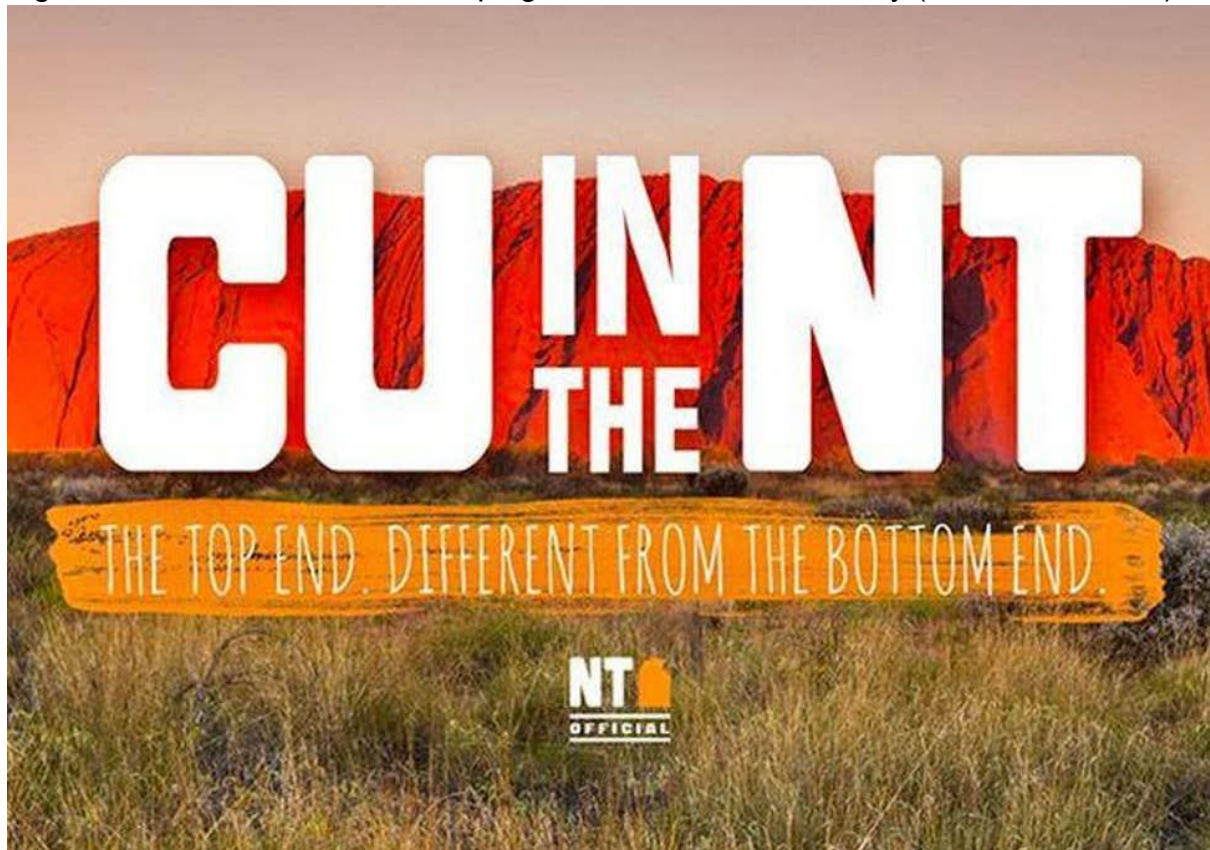
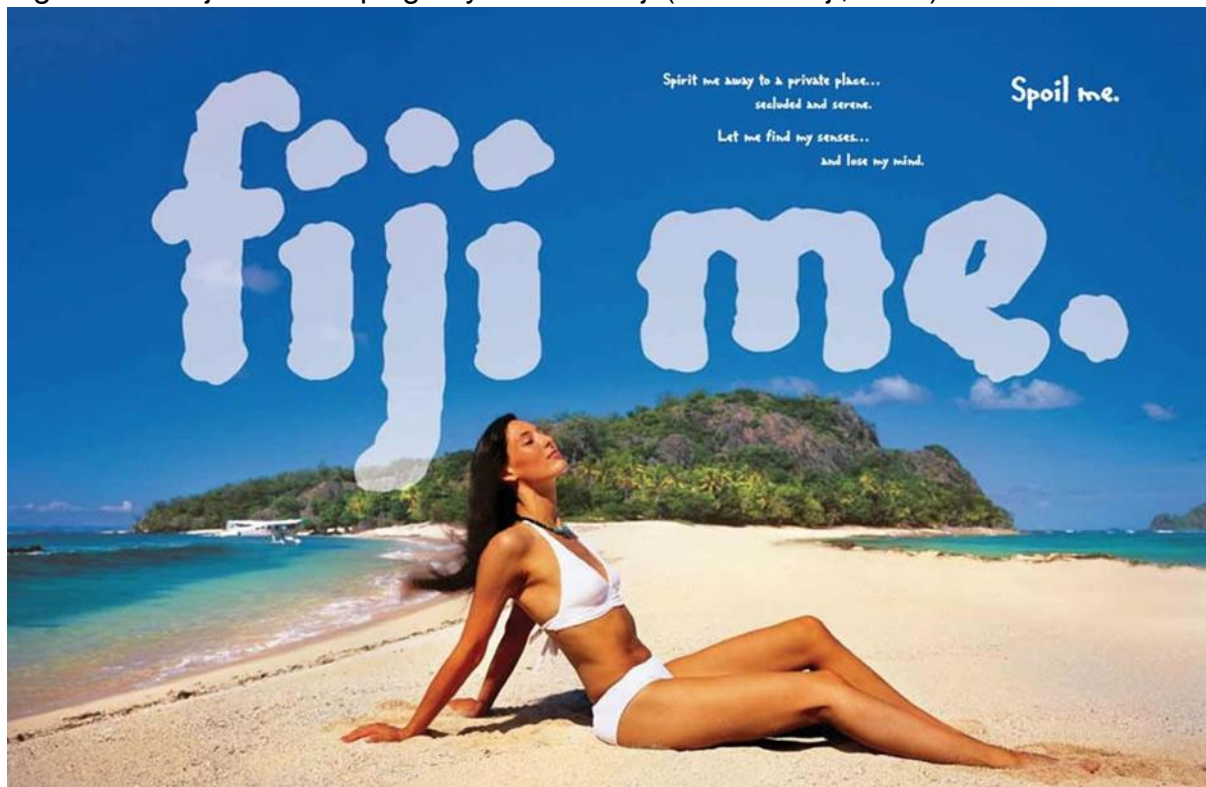


Figure 2.6: “The G-spot of Europe” Campaign by the Lithuania Tourism Board (vilniusgspot.com, 2018)





Figure 2.7: “Fiji me” Campaign by Tourism Fiji (Tourism Fiji, 2012)



## 2.10 Who is a Tourist?

“Tourists are temporary visitors staying at least twenty-four hours in the country visited and the purpose of whose journey can be classified under one of the following: (a) leisure (i.e., recreation, holiday, health, study, religion, and sport) and (b) business, family, or mission meeting” (Lelper, 1979, p. 393). The tourist equally invests time and money in activities which differentiate them from travellers because they use transportation, accommodation, attractions, and other miscellaneous activities. Tourists do not travel for earning remunerations, so this sets them apart from seasonal workers and those travelling for business. Tourists significantly contribute to the gross national product of many countries. Hence, the marketing and promotion of their destinations and products have become a common occurrence for both private and public sectors to attract tourists and generate income. With the influx of tourists, there is the issue of the efficient use of energy, water, natural resources, and damage to the environment, and these have necessitated a great deal of research in sustainable tourism. Tourist activity can be grouped into two dimensions: the journey and the stay (Burkart and Medlik, 1974). The minimum overnight stay gives tourism a distinctive character as it affects the behavioural pattern. Holiday makers do not usually act

the same way they do in their home country. They exhibit behaviours such as “taking photos,” “buying souvenirs,” “going to famous places,” “staying briefly in one place,” and “not understanding the local people” (Yu *et al.*, 2012, p. 447). There are many reasons for a change in behaviour ranging from wanting to experience the local culture to their nationality and environment (Dasgupta, 2011). Tourists’ behaviours have been studied across various areas such as decision making, values, personality, expectations, satisfaction, motivation, and trust (Pantouvakis and Patsiouras, 2016a). This research, all the same, is considered with the aspect of tourist misbehaviour and how shock advertising affects their behavioural intentions.

### **2.11 Who is the Host?**

The relevance of the host cannot be underestimated as a crucial part of the tourist experience since engagement between host and tourists is required. The hosts can include organisations from private and public sectors, such as resident trades, inhabitants’ protesters groups, and vacation business staff (Sautter and Leisen, 1999). The host community plays different roles such as “service providers, sellers, craftspeople, and even as ethnic ‘attractions’” (Su and Wall, 2010, p. 37). The host must have good knowledge of the tourist’s characteristics and behaviours in planning tourism development. Tourists are now very informed, and it is necessary to offer quality products to maintain a sustainable position in the market and remain competitive. Meeting tourists’ perceptions and expectations is crucial to enhance the quality of their stay (Buultjens *et al.*, 2013). This research aims to evaluate how interactions with hosts and using gathered information for planning and management affects tourists’ on-site behaviour.

### **2.12 Characteristics of Tourism**

Tourism is a critical area of economic growth and able to spur job creation and gross national product. Tourism activities can act as an essential indicator to redirect economic trend, stimulate growth, increase employment, and help with economic recovery in the European Union (Grechi *et al.*, 2017). Tourism is characterised according to the demand or supply of its goods and services. Organisations that include governmental bodies, non-profit organisations such as charities, and commercial businesses make up the supply chain of tourism (Gunn, 1994). Middleton (2009) proposed the following consumers categorise the demand of tourism:

- inbound tourism (i.e., international travellers from other countries travelling to a foreign country).
- outbound tourism (i.e., resident of a country travelling to another state)

- domestic tourism (i.e., individuals in a nation moving within the same country to other locations)

Tourism has attracted many researchers worldwide who are interested in the growth and new trends developing in the sector (Shrestha and Jeong, 2016). The tourism sectors are made of five major areas: attractions/entertainment, hotels/accommodation, restaurant/ food services, retail/shopping, and services (Viren *et al.*, 2015). According to (Konglim, 2011), there are four main characteristics of tourism:

- The inflexibility of supply: For instance, the number of rooms in a hotel or vacant seats in an aeroplane or bus cannot be saved in the time of demand fluctuation to use when needed during a busy period.
- Perishable services: Goods and services not used are wasted.
- Fixed location: The consumer must come to a site to access the product.
- Relatively significant financial investment: A considerable investment is required, and risk and return on investment are very critical.

### **2.13 Tourism and Violence: Role of Alcohol and Drugs.**

The expansion of the tourism sector has led to many undesirable behaviours detrimental to its growth and development (Bonnet *et al.*, 2019). Hughes *et al.* (2008) identified tourists' misbehaviour as often alcohol and drug-related incidents and violence. Research on tourism violence has focused on the host's perspective on how political and terrorist violence can affect a destination visitation number, such as that in Palestine (Isaac, 2017), Tunisia (Lanouar, and Goaid, 2019), and Turkey (Kafanov, 2015). Others have analysed it from tourists' violent attitudes in tourist locations such as Kavos and Faliraki (Belias *et al.*, 2017) and Southern Europe (Calafat *et al.*, 2011). Violence can occur in two forms: verbal assaults (e.g., insults or threats) and physical assault. Generally, violence is a deterring factor to potential tourists wanting to visit a destination. However, some adventurous tourists are attracted to some destinations with wars, conflicts, and other violent events (Neumayer, 2004).

The use of alcohol in travel and tourism has always been part and parcel of the trip but not the primary purpose. However, more recently, due to cheaper flights, there has been an increase in trips where alcohol was the purpose. These kinds of tours are called "alcotourism." Clear examples are stags, hens, beer, and wine tasting excursions (Bell, 2008; Örnberg and Room, 2014). Many tourism businesses also use alcohol for their marketing and promotion, such as off-duty free liquor, free alcoholic drinks on flights, and all-inclusive hotels which promote

heavy drinking (Örnberg and Room, 2014). Some destinations even use alcohol-related images and beverages to improve their location. For example, in the 1990s, Bermuda advertised with “Let Yourself Go,” suggesting the consumption of alcohol can help tourists let go (Örnberg and Room, 2014).

There is a link between alcohol, drug, and violence. For instance, in England and Wales, 50% of the violence happen under the influence of alcohol (Flatley *et al.*, 2010). Many young adults see the use of alcohol and other substances as an integral part of nightlife, often resulting in binge drinking. Binge drinking is described as consuming more than six units of alcohol in one single session (NHS, 2016). Calafat *et al.* (2011) found 71% of young adults got drunk at least once during the holidays. The abuse of alcohol and drugs has been found to be associated with violence, exemplified by cases of tourists falling from the balconies of their hotels, fights in bars, drunk and unruly behaviour on flights, and bottles smashed over heads. There are also other health risks such as “sex-related behaviours – promiscuity, sex without a condom, sexual harassment, being the victim of theft, road accidents and accidents of other types” (e.g., falls; Calafat *et al.*, 2011, p. 8).

Calafat listed the most problematic issues associated with drinking and drug abuse in young adults is:

- Mortality from road accidents and falls.
- Interpersonal violence, such as wounds to the head and other parts of the body, fights, assaults, or threats.
- Sexually risky practices

Aside from the harmful effects of tourist violence, binge drinking, and the illicit use of drugs also influence the host communities, especially those that cater to foreigners (Padilla *et al.*, 2012). Although the abuse of alcohol has so many vices, some research has indicated the easy availability of alcohol increases tourism revenue (Moser, 1980). For instance, Room *et al.* (2002) found a decrease in domestic tourism and reduction of about 30%-50% in the booking of hotel accommodations in India after a ban on alcohol was implemented. Many tourists see alcohol as a way of cutting loose and improving their leisure experience as many of them work all year round to save up for their holiday. Sometimes tourists are drawn to sites and destinations where suffering and tragedy have occurred, known as “dark tourism” or “morbid tourism” (Andrews, 2014, p.15). On rare occasions, tourists may also want to visit conflict zones to witness and learn more about the political unrest. However, if a destination is to maintain its attractiveness and competitiveness, the issue of violence must be addressed as tourists can easily choose alternative destinations with a more stable condition. If violent

incidents become more commonplace, official authorities in tourists' home countries can issue advice discouraging potential tourists from visiting the destination.

### **2.14 Impact of Tourism**

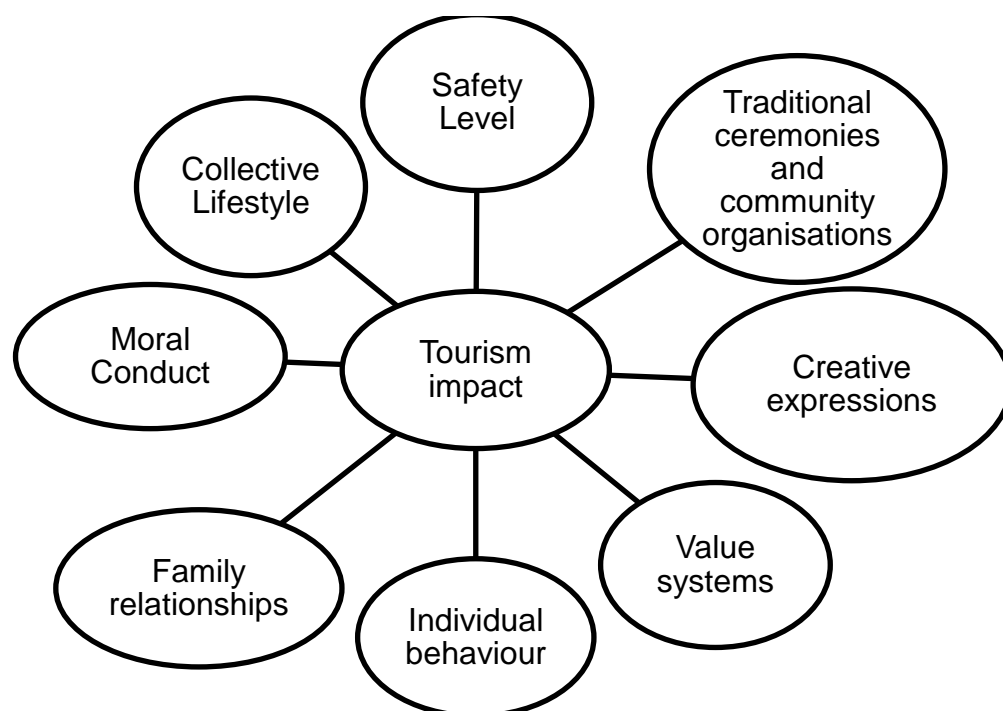
Most literature on the impact of tourism covers four areas: economic, social, cultural, and environmental (Borradaile, 2012). These four areas are intertwined because a negative impact on one of the sectors can influence the other. For example, damage to a cultural heritage site could lead to upset locals who stage protests and have altercations with tourists, deterring tourists from revisiting the destination. The impact of tourism started to receive attention in the 60s and found more positive effects, research in the 70s found more negative effects, and research in the 80s adopted a more balanced view (Andereck and Vogt, 2000; García *et al.*, 2015). Residents usually view the economic impact of tourism positively even though some adverse effects may also arise. Positive effects include a rise in employment opportunities, which generates a source of income for the residents. Residents are also able to negotiate the best deals with tourists and tourists' businesses to get the best deals, leading to an increase in infrastructures that promote a higher quality standard of living. While most research has suggested a positive impact of tourism on the economy, there are also negative effects of tourism on the economy, including lower income and salary compensation compared to other industries. Also, tourism employment is seasonal, resulting in a lack of work security, increases in the cost of living, and increases in the standard of living as inflation rises with the price of houses and other consumables.

The social impact of tourism entails issues such as religion, lifestyle, family, and individual behaviours. It also deals with the interaction between hosts and tourists and their quality of life. On the other hand, cultural impacts relate more to individuals' norms, values, beliefs, food, dressing, and artefacts (Borradaile, 2012; Sharpley, 1994). Amid the sociocultural platform, the host and tourists may bond and generate new social and cultural opportunities, but this change in their norms and beliefs could lead to distress, anxiety, and loss of cultural heritage and identity (García *et al.*, 2015). Tourist revenue also helps maintain and preserve heritage sites and archaeological sites, sustaining the host's cultural identity. Nevertheless, some undesirable impacts are traffic congestion and parking issues due to the influx of tourists. Also, there are issues like high crime rates, vandalism, prostitution, and fraudulent activities. There are contradictory findings on the sociocultural benefits of tourism for the community. While some studies found positive effects (Andereck *et al.*, 2005; Besculides *et al.*, 2002; Yoon *et al.*, 2001), others found more negative effects (Andriotis, 2005; Andereck *et al.*, 2005). The impact of tourism on the social and cultural sector of a community depends on the context and other variables.

According to Jovicic (2011), sociocultural impacts arise because of the social interaction between tourists and the hosts. This relationship can be fostered in three ways: a) when the tourist buys a product or service from the host, b) when the host offers services, and c) through the tourist-host relationship.

The personal characteristics of individuals (whether they are tourists or hosts) and the conditions under which such are achieved determines the relationship between tourists and their hosts. These impacts are relevant to this research as the stakeholder's attitudes of tourism are assessed at the regional level (Borradile, 2012; Williams and Lawson, 2001) and we focus on the tourist-host relationship and destination management. Tourists' misbehaviour falls under the sociocultural impact of tourism; however, the effect can cut across all interlinked sectors.

Figure 2.8: Sociocultural Impact of Tourism (Page, 2007, p. 400)



There is a great deal of research on the environmental impact of tourism on destinations (Andereck *et al.*, 2005; Bujosa and Rosselló, 2007; Oviedo *et al.*, 2008). Some encouraging influences include the preservation of natural resources and improving the physical surrounding of their destination. Nevertheless, recent studies have devoted more attention to the adverse effects of tourism, such as pollution and damage to the natural scenery, as was the case of Venice and cluster in public facilities and resources (Garcia *et al.*, 2015).

## 2.15 Definition of DMO's

DMO is an acronym where “D” stands for destination,” M” for either “marketing” or “management,” and “O” for organisations. In this research, destinations will imply “tourist destinations.” Destinations are a crucial area for many types of research on tourism (Pearce, 2014). Buhalis (2000) defined destinations as locations that offer a combination of products and services to tourists for an integrated experience. Destinations can be explained from various angles, such as the purpose of the trip, geographical location, and perspective. A destination is where a tourist decides to spend their leisure time or on business aside from their usual residence. The destination can be in a collection of countries or locally in cities or towns, resorts, parks, and beaches or coastlines (Copper *et al.*, 2008). Finally, destinations can be viewed from two perspectives: as a holistic or a cognitive system (Varra *et al.*, 2012). The holistic method involves considering all stakeholders and processes. In a broad definition, there is a concern about management and coordinating actions among the stakeholders (Presenza *et al.*, 2005). The cognitive system, on the other hand, involves focusing attention on the strategy and explicit knowledge of the destination. More recent studies have analysed the interrelationship between the various stakeholders to better manage tourists.

Secondly, according to Li *et al.* (2017), destination marketing is a vital area of academic study in the field of tourism. Marketing activities initially started with governmental organisations selling their destinations through meetings and conventions. Over time, their activities began to include planned events that enhanced visitors’ experiences to support long-term economic growth and spending (Pouder *et al.*, 2018). According to Lee *et al.* (2016), marketing activities carried out in destinations include the following: “1) direct sales, 2) bid presentations, 3) sales blitzes, 4) use of local organisations and contacts, 5) trade show marketing, 6) advertising, 7) familiarisation tours/site inspections, 8) destination publications and brochures, 9) direct mail, 10) telemarketing, and 11) cooperative programs” (p. 24).

Moving forward, research on tourism is now focused on managing destinations instead of just marketing them, as well as other inclusive activities. According to Ritchie and Crouch (2003), the significance of the nonmarketing roles of DMOs is essential in sustaining their competitive advantage. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) argued it is now more suitable to look at DMOs as management directed. In other words, the term DMO captures organisations where “M” now represents management. Vernon *et al.* (2005) defined destination management as a “collective effort that requires various organisations and businesses in a geographically limited area to harmoniously work together to achieve a common goal” (p. 325). Tourism destinations manage their official websites and management database and have strategies in place to analyse all data used in the organisation (Li *et al.*, 2017).

There is a growing belief that the attractiveness of a destination is extremely connected to how it establishes and handles its relationship with numerous investors (Cooper *et al.*, 2008). Marketing-oriented strategies pay more attention to outward focus, while management adopts an inward focus, primarily interested in sustaining the destination competitiveness, managing its resources and investment, and ensuring tourists have a pleasant experience (Hristov and Naumov, 2015). Managing the destination creates an atmosphere where the organisation has a say in its economic sustainability which surpasses any traditional marketing activities (Hristov and Naumov, 2015). DMs play a crucial role in advertising, administration, preparation, and depend profoundly on their communication with major stakeholders (D'Angella and Go, 2009).

Finally, it is important to evaluate “O,” which stands for organisation. The first tourism organisation established to market a local destination was the “Blackpool Municipal Corporation in England in 1879” (Adeyinka-Ojo *et al.*, 2014, p. 152). The purpose of the Blackpool Municipal Corporation was to collect taxes from the locals to fund the promotion and advertising of the attractions in town. Tourism organisations are entities tasked with the responsibility of attracting visitors to their destinations (Sheehan and Ritchie, 2005). Research on the organisation structure of tourism destination management is scarce (Pike and Ives, 2018).

Tourism organisations are sometimes grouped based on the activities they do (e.g., customer-focused services, which include physical products in the destination mix, people, packages, and programmes). Other organisations engage in planning, leadership, coordination, and research (Pechlaner and Fuchs, 2002). Notwithstanding, it can be challenging for a tourism organisation when it comes to the leadership function and organisation hierarchy, but this is essential if they want to maintain a competitive advantage. Destination organisation structures have similar components with the business set of the company and the location (Bieger, 2015).

#### 2.15.1 Types of DMO's

In most cases, DMOs are either regionally or locally controlled. Also, their operations and categorisation differ from one country to another as no one size fits all, given they operate in different administration, names, and levels (Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Kozak and Baloglu, 2011). In England, for instance, DMOs and the local white paper are accountable for the imminent conveyance of tourism management and marketing all over England's tourism destinations (Hristov and Naumov, 2015). The control of the destination management development emulates from specific themes, principal workers who can regulate the home growth independently, and employ a solid system of relationship built on the region (Varra *et*



*al.*, 2012). Buhalis (2000) defined DMOs as a “part of the local, regional and national government that have political and legislative powers as well as the financial means to manage resources rationally and to ensure that all stakeholders can benefit in the long term” (p. 99).

According to Morrison (2013), DMO types include entities in their geographical locations, which are countries, states, provinces and territories, counties, and cities. For instance, in most countries, it is the role of the government to run DMOs, but this can be done in different ways. For example, organisations in Malaysia, a country well known for its tourism activity, are grouped within three levels of government: the federal, state, and local authorities. Yet, the question arises whether the government or the private sector should administer destination management or collaborate in this effort (Morrison, 2013). Pechlaner *et al.* (2009) argued there must be cooperation between all parties involved for effective regional management of the tourism organisation, including the appropriate governmental and control bodies or through informal rules. According to UNWTO (2012), a country's government can function effectively as a DMO because of the following reasons:

- They have long-term strategic plans due to stability in their organisation structure.
- They have excellent destination awareness as they have grass-roots knowledge and social responsibilities.
- They can get financial support from other governmental parastatals and manage complex tourism organisations.
- They can provide financial aids to small and medium scale businesses that make up other sectors of tourism organisations.
- They may possess a higher authority to function in quality assurance programmes.

Despite all the advantages, government organisations are known to be slow and too bureaucratic in decision making. Also, they may be less skilled than DMOs in the critical function of marketing. Finally, they may be politically influenced, and once a party loses, key staff could change (Morrison, 2013).

The roles of the private sector DMO cannot be underemphasised, as they are proficient at the following (Morrison, 2013):

- Effective at short-term strategy and planning.
- Their decision making is fast as they do not have a lot of organisational hierarchy.
- Masters of the art of marketing and sales because they are profit oriented.

- Good at spotting opportunities in the marketplace.
- They manage their organisations as businesses.
- They manage customer expectations as they have well-grounded customer relationship management (CRM)

On the contrary, the private sector is more profit-oriented and hence social responsibility and welfare of the community may not be their top priority. Additionally, they may be less able than their governmental counterparts to receive financial support and less stable than national bodies, thus less effective long term.

Tourism organisations can also be grouped according to the regions they cover:

- World Organisations - A global body responsible for tourism policy, knowledge, and information centres (e.g., UNWTO).
- National Organisations - “They are responsible for the management and marketing of tourism at a national level,” (Tian, 2014, p.24) for instance, Singapore Tourism Board and Tourism Malaysia.
- Regional Organisations - Accountable for the administration and promotion of tourism in a specific terrestrial region, like Pacific Asia Tourism Association (PATA).
- Local Organisations - “responsible for the management and marketing of tourism based on a smaller geographic area or city/town,” for instance, Peak District and Derbyshire Tourism (Tian, 2014, p. 24).

## **2.16. Tourists’ Misbehaviour**

Tourist behaviour is one of the most investigated areas in advertising and tourism publications (Cohen *et al.*, 2014). Tourism has a significant effect on the resident community, affecting traditions, norms, customs, beliefs, ethics, and ethos of the inhabitants of the holiday destination. Therefore, understanding the behaviour and attitudes of tourists is of great importance as it benefits the economy more generally (García *et al.*, 2015). According to Pearce (2005), understanding tourist behaviour has practical value for all stakeholders involved in tourism. Stakeholders gather information on tourist behaviour in holiday planning, growth strategies, marketing products, services, and managing any problematic tourist behaviour.

The five main areas that still need a lot of ongoing research on tourism are “group and joint decision-making, under-researched segments, cross-cultural issues in emerging markets,

emotions and tourists/consumer misbehaviour” (Cohen *et al.*, 2014, p. 875). This research is concerned with tourist/consumer misbehaviour. Tourists’ misbehaviour has received very little empirical attention and study in the tourism research sector.

Tourists’ misbehaviour can be defined as “behavioural acts by consumers, which violate the generally accepted norms of conduct in consumption situations’ and thus represent ‘the dark, negative side of the consumer” (Fullerton and Punj, 2004, p. 1239). It is associated with a lot of peril for stakeholders and can cause a lot of negative impacts such as undermining well-being of locals and business staff, disrupting operational efficiency, threatening other pleasurable tourist experiences, tourist satisfaction, and overall profitability for business owners and other stakeholders.

Many publications in the press and literature highlight unruly and annoying tourist behaviour. In a newspaper publication, Chinese national television reported Beijing was using new control mechanisms to address a rising problem: the disconcerting behaviour of Chinese tourists on holiday by naming and shaming them. This came after a Chinese teenager was publicly named for defacing a 3,500-year-old temple in Egypt (Taylor, 2015). China came up with a regulation to stop deviance and tourists’ misbehaviour and stated the consequences in “The Regulations of Deviant Tourist Behaviour Management.” It listed tourists’ misbehaviours “such as polluting the environment, vandalising public facilities, or breaking the customs of destination would be charged to tourists’ credit record” (Li and Chen, 2017, p. 4). Since the manifesto was published, 20 tourists have broken the rules and have been fined and publicly shamed.

Loi and Pearce (2012) classified annoying tourists’ behaviour into:

- Acts directly relating to others (e.g., smoking anywhere without considering those around them, unsafe driving habits, and not obeying traffic rules and regulations).
- Isolated individual acts, which could be repulsive acts or physical appearance issues, and vocal actions like littering/spitting in public or using swear words.
- Marginally illegal or scam behaviours.

Another area of tourists’ misbehaviour is risky sexual encounters. Berdychevsky and Gibson (2015) found an increase in risky sexual behaviour among young tourists, but it is essential this area undergo further study due to limited research. According to Hughes (2008), most tourist misbehaviour occurs among young adults, including alcohol-related incidents that increase the likelihood of violence. However, tourists also exhibit positive behaviours that

tourism business highly welcome such as acknowledging and respecting local cultures and traditions, spending money on souvenirs, and taking good care of the local environment (Murphy *et al.*, 2011). Differences in the perceptions of tourist behaviour across different national contexts have been investigated and it is vital to understand the undesirable actions tourists exhibit, as there is minimal study in this aspect (Andereck *et al.*, 2007).

#### 2.16.1 Tourists Misbehaviour in Spain

As discussed in the previous sections, tourists' misbehaviour is a problem in many tourist destinations. Spain is one favourite holiday destination. British tourists see Spain as their top tourist destination due to its proximity and the presence of the sun and sea, making it a suitable location). Nevertheless, tourist misbehaviour is prevalent. Destinations such as Majorca are known to experience a high incidence of violence, most commonly among British tourists (Calafat *et al.*, 2011; Hughes, 2009). For instance, in 2015, Magaluf council implemented a \$3,000 fine for drunkenness, urinating, nudity in the streets, and balconing (i.e., the act of jumping off hotel balconies). Other banned misconducts were drinking alcohol in the street between 10 PM and 8 AM and the selling of alcohol between midnight and 8 AM (Telegraph, 2015). The Spanish Tourism Board implemented these actions to create an atmosphere where tourists can enjoy their holiday responsibly and sustainably. There has now been a crackdown in many resorts where many tourists have been imposed with on-the-spot fines for offences such as drunkenness, nudity, and drug use. The national police also pay close attention to severe crimes such as theft, rape, and other social vices (Hampshire, 2003). The British and Spanish newspapers publish news articles of tourists misbehaving when drunk. For instance, 156 British tourists were thrown out of the Magaluf resorts for drunken antics and uncivil behaviour (Telegraph, 2017).

McCartney (2014) found Spain had the highest number (9%) of tourist prisoners arrested between 2011 and 2012 for violations of cultural norms, drugs, people smuggling, and paedophilic crimes. Drug-related offences were one of the highest for British tourists in Spain under 34 years at 7% (Foreign and Commonwealth Office, 2013a). There also appears to be a problem with drunkenness in Spain that many media outlets have highlighted (Borradaile, 2012). In terms of antisocial behaviour, the ADT report (2006) indicated people living in Spain view Spain as one of the worst behaved countries in the European Union. Still, the region's institutions and territory regulate many of these behaviours and crimes as Spain is made up of 17 autonomous governments (Caballero, 2005). Behaviours such as the 'bottellon' (big bottle) in which a large crowd of young adults gather in public places to drink and socialise are

mostly acceptable in Spain. These groups can grow into hundreds and thousands of people, although many recent regions have started banning these due to the nuisance it causes (Mateo-Yanguas, 2009). For instance, the city of Barcelona has implemented a new law, called ‘L’ordenanza de convivencia’ or ‘order of cohabitation’ which aims to curtail tourists’ and locals’ misbehaviour. Table 2.2 below covers some of the unacceptable behaviours this law covers:

**Table 2.2: Barcelona By-Law (Barcelona City Council, 2006)**

<b>Vandalism in the form of graffiti or scrawling.</b>	<b>Prostitution: offer and demand</b>	<b>Use of beaches and parks- to guarantee safety and security, and to maintain these natural areas</b>
<b>Conduct of those begging for money- prohibits the use of minors and those with disability</b>	<b>Posters, stickers, and leaflets- monuments, or catalogued or protected buildings.</b>	<b>Drinking alcohol- Preventing unregulated drinking of alcohol on the streets</b>
<b>Offences against the rights of the individual</b>	<b>Gambling on the street</b>	<b>Inappropriate use of public areas- intention to destroy amenities.</b>
<b>Games in public areas- interfere with the safety and tranquillity of other people, and where urban furniture or other property may be damaged</b>	<b>Noise pollution</b>	<b>Other activities- such as fortune-telling, tarot reading.</b>
<b>Unlicensed street traders.</b>	<b>Physiological needs- urinating, spitting in public areas with monuments etc.</b>	<b>Vandalism having no respect for others or their environment, and vandalise urban facilities</b>

## **2.17 Justification for Choosing Spain**

Spain is one of the most famous tourist destinations in the world (Perles-Ribes *et al.*, 2017). Tourism is a driving force in Spain and accounts significantly for its economic activities (López-Sánchez and Pulido-Fernández, 2014). Spain’s travel and tourism industry has grown steadily over the past few years despite domestic economic uncertainty and Eurozone debt crisis. Spain is a favoured holiday destination for many European countries and other regions as the various surrounding islands make it ideal because of its sunshine, beaches, and numerous nightlife resorts (Office of National Statistics [ONS], 2015). Many locations are primary spots for nightlife and clubbing in Spain. For instance, Ibiza and Mallorca are well known for their “modern dance culture and ecstasy use” (Bellis *et al.*, 2009; Sönmez *et al.*, 2013, p. 50).

Tourists are drawn to the “vibrant nightlife and the promises of sun, sea, sand, unrestricted drinking, and round-the-clock partying” (Sönmez *et al.*, 2013, p. 49). However, this kind of carefree behaviour can increase the use of recreational drugs, unsafe sex, excessive drinking, assault, and even death. With its popularity among young tourists and families, there abound many media reports that violence is an issue and common occurrence on the island’s resorts (Hughes *et al.*, 2008). For instance, recently in the city of Magaluf, Spain, there have been

several incidents of tourists running naked in the street to the beach and drunken hooligans causing fights after football matches. Hughes *et al.* (2008) found many British tourists visiting Mallorca and Ibiza were involved in fights and violence.

According to Biagi and Detotto (2014) and Schubert (2009), some of the adverse effects of the presence of tourists are as follows: “crowding and congestion of roads, public transportation and cities, and thus conflicts between tourists and residents in using infrastructure, noise, litter, property destruction, pollution, increased water consumption per head, CO<sub>2</sub>[carbon dioxide] emissions, changes in community appearance, overbuilding, changes in the landscape and views, degradation of nature, e.g. caused by saturation of construction and development projects, depletion of wildlife, damage to cultural resources, land use loss, increased urbanization, and increased crime rate” (p. 18). Tourists exhibit risky behaviours because of their “expectations of certain types of experiences, peer pressure, risky leisure choices (clubbing, excessive drinking), as well as behavioural intentions for such activities” (Sönmez *et al.*, 2013, p. 51).

According to the Guardian (2016), Spain’s Balearic Islands (Majorca, Minorca, and Ibiza) are under immense pressure from tourism, and the government is looking to cap the number of tourists allowed and even impose fines on individuals that rent spaces to tourists illegally. Other cities such as Barcelona have also encountered problems with tourists, such as locals’ protests and disruptions over tourist numbers. With these impressive figures and problematic tourist behaviour, it is no surprise a lot of research has been done on the impact of tourism in Spain, making it an ideal destination to use for this study. Nevertheless, existing studies on Spain have not incorporated shock advertising in curtailing annoying and undesirable tourist behaviours or investigated how this will affect both locals and tourists alike (Moscardo, 1996).

## **2.18 Spanish Tourism Development**

Internationally, Spain is now the world’s second most visited destination after France, followed closely by the United States (UNTWO, 2019). In 2018, there were 83 million international tourist arrivals, a 10% increase from the previous year, and this has been steadily progressing over the past decade (UNWTO, 2019). Spain outperforms other European Union receipts as it is forecasted to receive over 70 billion euro in 2019 (16% of the European Union’s total revenues), an increase of 3.2% compared to the previous year (UNWTO, 2019). The Spanish government recognises the importance of tourism and has prioritised it as a main action of its department because it considers that it must become an instrument of recovery and economic revival as it continues to play a strategic role in the Spanish economy and society.

Nevertheless, to achieve this, the Spanish Tourism Plan of 2020 is the most suitable to achieve the goal of continuing to lead in world tourism. According to Cirer-Costa (2014), tourism in Spain has evolved into the development of the local tourist market and as an international destination.

The history of Spanish tourism has mostly been portrayed from the perspective of international growth. Nonetheless, the place and role of domestic tourism cannot be underestimated. With the emergence of Spain as a tourist destination in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, there seems to be a link between the change in taste of Spaniards concerning leisure activities such as fiestas, dancing, and bullfighting and attraction for foreign tourists (Barke and Towner, 1996). Rural and domestic tourism was an effective way to regenerate its cultural heritage and natural resources (Bramwell, 1990). Domestically, other forms of tourism were also growing, such as hunting, walking, mountaineering, and winter sports. In recent times, the local tourist market now accounts for two-thirds of the Spanish tourism demand (Bujosa *et al.*, 2015).

#### 2.18.1 Challenges in the current Spanish tourism industry

Tourism faces a lot of issues ranging from tourist's misbehaviour, unplanned invasive and large-scale infrastructure construction, pollution and waste and unrealistic expectations of the significant destination players. These challenges, especially from the hosts, can affect their quality of life, social justice, and their environment. The problems that face the Spanish tourism are from the supply and demand angle. On the supply side, the challenges faced by hotels, tourism businesses are analysed, and the demand side looks at forecasting on visitors' arrivals at the destination (Perles *et al.*, 2013). One of the crises that faced the Spanish tourism industry in the 70s was the energy and oil issues which led to a change in demand behaviour such as a reduction in long haul flights due to price increases but led to a last-minute reservation. In the 80's and 90's, competition increased in sun and beach holiday, which affected Spanish tourism as other new exciting destinations increased. Notwithstanding, the Spanish government reinvented its tourism sector by introducing domestic tourism (Vera, 1994).

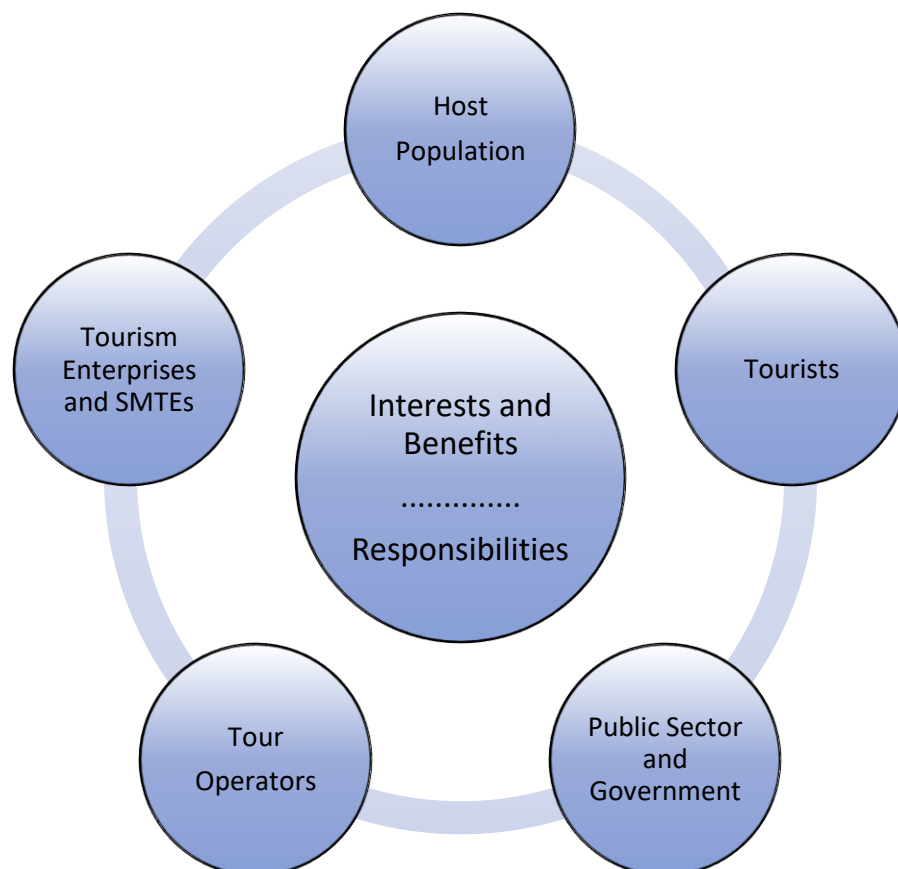
In recent times, Spanish tourism has seen a decline in visitors' arrivals and tourism businesses profitability, and this was due to the property bubble and the increasing development of coastal tourism properties. Its tourism sector also faced other challenges such as increasing competition from cheaper destinations, tourist's misbehaviour, and global climate change. The economic crises and recessions between 2007 and 2012 also had a devastating effect its tourism sector (Perles-Ribes *et al.*, 2016). Despite this, Spain tourism did not suffer too much as there was conflict in North Africa and Arab, which sustained its tourism industry. In 2011 Spain saw a massive influx of tourist numbers showing its resilience and ability to stand up to

its many challenges. On the other hand, several issues such as unemployment rose above many European cities due to the slowdown in the construction industry (Perles *et al.*,2013). Subsequently, this affected other services sector like tourism as domestic and residential tourism suffered.

#### 2.18.2 The nature of Spanish DMOs

According to Buhalis (2000) “DMOs tend to be part of the local, regional or national government and have political and legislative power as well as the financial means to manage resources rationally and to ensure that all stakeholders can benefit in the long term” (p. 99). Stakeholders include the host country’s population, private tourism organisations, tourists, tour operators, and governmental organisations, as illustrated in the diagram below:

*Figure 2.9: Tourism Stakeholders (Buhalis, 2000)*



Generally, DMOs can be broadly classified as either public sector organisations or privately owned businesses (Tian, 2014). Most Spanish DMOs still operate under the public sector. The Secretariat of State of Tourism and Spanish Ministry of Tourism run Spain’s management activities (Minetad, 2017). The Spanish tourism sector is grouped into 17 regions, known as



the Autonomous Communities, and their regional public government shares responsibility with the central government in managing their tourism activities. Their medium and long-term goals are primarily dependent on local tourist policies and expenditures and success is largely reliant on the availability of natural endowments and infrastructural availability (Martin *et al.*, 2017).

Since the 90s, Spain's tourism organisation has operated under a broader unit called the Ministry of Industry, Energy and Tourism. Under it is the Institute of Tourism in Spain (TURESPAÑA) created in 1990 and dependent on the central government. It is responsible for promoting Spain internationally as a tourist destination. Turespana has 33 offices worldwide and is mainly administrative with the following functions:

- “planning, developing, and carrying out activities aimed at promoting Spain as a tourism destination in international markets.
- supporting the marketing of Spanish tourism products abroad in cooperation with regional and local authorities and the private sector.
- undertaking research to determine the different influences on tourism, gathering statistical information and data on the tourism sector, and creating, disseminating, and coordinating knowledge and intelligence on tourism various administrative units generate.
- establishing the strategy, plan of action, and investments for new Spanish paradores (Paradores de Turismo de España) Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development” (OECD, 2014, p. 292).

The local Spanish tourism authority in cities and provinces is responsible for managing their resources and promotion. A vital body which is present in many cities is the Patronato de Turismo, whose primary duty is to support other private tourism businesses in their region to attract the masses and fairs. Tourism has acted as a catalyst for governmental bodies to achieve social responsibility objectives, such as providing employment and enhancing the natural environment of its destination (Marino, 2001).

## **2.19 Research Gap, Objectives, and Questions**

This research focused on the use of shock advertising as a strategy for managing tourists' misbehaviour. This study focused on this because many other researchers have paid more attention to the benefits of shock advertising over different types of advertising such as informational, emotional, and threatening. While others have examined other aspects of tourist behaviour like decision making, purchase, revisit intentions, and sustainability in tourism, this

study aims to understand how shock advertising can be a useful tool for managing tourists' misbehaviour.

The review of the existing literature in the preceding sections extensively discuss the benefits of shock advertising and how it grabs attention, enhances cognition, and improves memorability. Notwithstanding, confusing results may have hindered assessing the effectiveness of shock advertisements. For example, Parry *et al.* (2013), Virvilaitė and Matulevičienė (2013), Dens *et al.* (2008), and Dahl *et al.* (2003) found shock advertisements are great at persuading consumers to purchase products and services. Also, these researchers found consumers' views of shock advertisement impacted their buying behaviour, such that more positive perspectives positively impacted consumer behaviour and vice versa. Conversely, Machová *et al.* (2015), Zlatevska and Spence (2012), and Vézina and Paul (1997) found provocative appeals do not influence consumer purchase intentions and behavioural patterns. Rather, they found consumers' reactions to the shock advertisements were slightly more negative, which translated to a minimal reduction in respondents' purchase intentions of such products and more positive toward the conventional ads.

Dahl *et al.* (2003) found shock appeals are useful tools for inspiring consumers to create awareness of the advertising message and participate in the right cognitive behaviour. Though shock advertisement can create present awareness, the overall long-term effectiveness is unknown (Machová *et al.*, 2015). Most research has measured memorability only after a short period as, given this is an effective means to gauge advertising benefits. One pitfall is that these studies failed to recognise it would be more reliable to measure effects over a greater period (e.g., a day) to assess memorability. In addition, there are conflicting results on the benefits of shock advertising on memorability. For example, researchers have questioned whether the brand, shock image, or message is remembered.

Another question that arises from the literature focuses on the management of tourists' misbehaviour: who manages it and how should it be handled? It is clear from the research that destinations that want to succeed and sustain its resources would have to manage tourists' expectations and misbehaviour. Public parastatals usually employ advertisements a means of communicating to its audience. The destination's ads and warnings could manage tourists' misconduct. Literature has not yet provided enough answers to these questions. Although some of the research on DMOs propose all bodies involved with tourism should managed these, it has not clarified how this should be accomplished.

This research argues that incongruity in shock advertisements grabs attention as their uniqueness and norm-breaking qualities make them stand out from other conventional ads, but adds it needs to be applied in the right context and to the relevant degree. Context plays

a vital part in shockingness, as an advertisement's level of congruity with the merchandise it is intending to endorse may influence viewer discernment (Christy and Haley, 2007). One study found the content and context of an advertised message are very crucial, such that shock appeal through the representation of violence, unlawful conduct, terrifying pictures, and dangerous behaviour tend to be more tolerated in social education than in profitable advertising (Jones and Van Putten, 2008). ASA's report noted charity organisations have more flexibility than other advertisers when using shock pictures and wordings (Parry *et al.*, 2013). Charities and governmental organisations' use of shock ads is riskier as taxpayers fund them (West and Sargeant, 2004), potentially leading to increased complaints. On the other hand, consumers are more tolerant if they know organisations are not trying to influence them to buy their products but pass on crucial public information to change behaviour.

For instance, money supermarket's TV advert (Taylor, 2015) that showed a man walking down the street with shorts and high heeled shoes received 1,513 complaints for being overly sexual and many viewers found the ad distasteful, but ASA did not uphold this because it did not breach the code. From the buyer's viewpoint, it is not necessarily the shock images and words of the commercials that are worrying; rather, it is mostly because of the vague nature of the ad that underpins such images and viewers are unable to relate to the advertisement and the product.

Another gap in the literature is the absence or dearth of research on the effect of the use of incongruent messages on the tourism industry. For instance, Dens *et al.* (2008) studied disgust appeals in social profit campaigns and found they could be used only in a typical manner, such as using beachside images of a travel agent. They found commercial organisations can use incongruent messages because this can be effective if used mildly. According to Skavronskaya *et al.* (2017), several important tourism research topics could benefit from the use of cognitive theory. For instance, identifying the main mechanisms that make a tourism experiences positively or negatively memorable could be researched as there are very few studies on this thus far.

Therefore, these research questions directly stem from the research gap identified in the literature review:

#### 2.19. 1 RQ1: How do DMs understand and employ the use of shock advertisements in their advertising campaigns?

Nowadays, there is increased use of shock advertising in non-profit organisations (West and Sargeant, 2004) and profit organisations (Parry *et al.*, 2013). The tourism industry has not been neglected in this trend. For instance, the campaign of Tourism Australia, "Where the

Bloody Hell are you?” and other advertising media were aired online. Some literature has shown destinations have used this tactic as a deterrent to manage tourists’ behaviour, however, most have employed it as a promotional tool.

As stated earlier, destination management involves synchronising and unifying the activities of the destination mix, which are destination attractions, events, infrastructures, facilities, hospitality, and transportation (Morrison, 2013). DMs are responsible for marketing activities, leading and coordination, creating a suitable and accommodating environment, and delivering on the ground (UNWTO, 2007). From the above description of DMs’ duties and literature discussion, it is evident that one of their key roles is marketing activities, employing various strategies to attract tourists to their locations. According to UNWTO’s description of the marketing activities that DMOs perform, DMOs increase business activities and provide unbiased information and customer relationship management. Nonetheless, it stated the main objective is to get tourists to visit the destination. However, the destination marketing concept should be more than just getting tourists to visit a location; it should encompass the overall marketing strategy and involve short- and long-term planning goals. It should use effective branding methods to create a brand identity and image that tourists can relate to (Morrison, 2013). This research aims to fill the gap of using the marketing strategy to manage tourists’ misbehaviour and understand its effects on the overall destination image. This research question will be addressed using semi-structured interviews with DMs in the locations identified.

#### 2.19.2 RQ2: What are tourists’ attitudes toward shock advertisements?

Though many critics repudiate shock advertising on moral grounds, several big brands like French Connection, Gucci, and Benetton have applied it. So, one important question is whether it can still be recommended from a commercial perspective? There are conflicting results on the effects of shock advertising on brand attitude. For instance, Borg (2018) found attitudes toward the brand did not change after the ad was shown. Ilicic and Blakemore (2015) found mild shock executions in advertising, such as indecent wording, resulted in favourable brand attitudes and increased purchase intentions. Hence, this supports the schema incongruity theory in which consumers have a higher positive attitude tendency toward adverts that are moderately incongruent as they pause and reflect about the brand once the discrepancy has been successfully resolved. Consistent with Pope *et al.* (2004), Huhmann and Mott-Stenerson, (2008), and Dahl *et al.* (2003), mild incongruency ads have resulted in positive attitudes toward the ad. However, there has been inconsistency with other researchers who found mild incongruency in disgust and controversial advertisements led to an adverse reaction to the ad and brand (Dens *et al.*, 2003; Vezina and Paul, 2003). Elson

(2018) found no difference in audience attitude between campaigns with shock tactics for wildlife conservation and those without shock tactics. Anderson *et al.* (2007) found violent images could reduce positive attitudes toward the ad and brand. A change in attitude and behaviour usually assesses the proposed aims of advertising campaigns through the persuasion of the individual (Pflaumbaum, 2011). Hence, it is essential to check for a change in attitude once shock ads have been shown to respondents. Also, due to the inconsistency in findings, it was necessary to research the effect of shock advertising on tourists' attitudes toward shock advertising.

### 2.19.3 RQ3: How do shock advertisements affect tourists' intention to visit?

Measuring tourists' likelihood of visiting a destination is complex and challenging. Nonetheless, this is a crucial area that DMs are continually measured on (e.g., inbound tourists' numbers). Baloglu and McCleary (1999) proposed the way tourists view a destination and tourists' satisfaction are good indicators of its performance and, in turn, influence tourists' behaviour and visit intentions. This research is interested in the subjective intentions of tourists to come to the destination after viewing the shock advertisements. Tourist information is a significant source for intentions to visit. For instance, tourists get information from official websites, promotional ads, brochures, and magazines. For the destination to create favourable visit intentions, it is important to know how tourists respond to the advertising information it provides.

The importance of tourists visiting a destination cannot be overstressed. It has been referred to as one of the principal parts of a destination marketing research (Suh and Gartner, 2004). The activities DMs carry out to promote the destinations are focused solely on attracting tourists to their destination. They aim to achieve a competitive advantage over other similar destinations. This is accomplished through creating a favourable environment that tourists would want to visit. DMs need to be aware of how to create a unique image to market it effectively and make the best use of limited resources. Revisit intention is an integral part of behavioural intention and has been a critical research topic in tourism literature. Many researchers have proposed behavioural intentions and visit, and revisit plans are common dependent variables in the field of marketing and tourism (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2015). The intention to visit has been selected as an area in this research to measure because it is critical to assess how tourists currently perceive the destination. It is essential to assess tourists plans to visit or revisit the destination after viewing the shock ad and, if necessary, develop and implement a marketing tactic to modify any erroneous perception they have of the destination.

Finally, it is important to check whether the intended change of visit intentions has occurred. Although the intention to visit has been studied broadly, there is limited literature in this field to check if a marketing strategy has any propounding effect on the tourist's plans to visit.

#### 2.19.4 RQ4: How does shock advertising affect tourists' behavioural intentions?

Knowing the intentions of tourists is an essential prerequisite for the continual success of any destination. Behavioural intentions are also known as future intentions in tourism (Endah *et al.*, 2017). Researchers have found behaviour intentions are an excellent and accurate representation and prediction of actual behaviour (Chang, 1998). According to Petty and Cacioppo (1996), "behavioural intention is a function of two other factors: 1) the individual's attitude toward the behaviour and 2) the individual's subjective norm concerning the behaviour" (p. 200). Most tourists' behavioural intentions and future actions are studied from the perspective of revisiting the destination and experiencing satisfaction. There is very little research on tourists' behavioural intentions as they pertain to their misbehaviour and how they intend to behave after understanding the consequences of their actions. The implications of this kind of behaviour include injuries, accidents, defacement, fights, beatings, and even deaths. Brunt and Brophy (2004) studied deviant tourists' behaviour and found a link between the way the destination markets their destination and abnormal tourist behaviour. Some scholars have proposed the combination of punishment and reward to limit tourists' misbehaviour, as neither one on their own can achieve results (Li and Chen, 2017). Tourism impact awareness can be used to bridge the gap between these two forms of consequence and help reduce tourism misbehaviour intentions. Tourism impact awareness refers to the extent of knowledge tourists hold about the locations, the impact of their behaviour on the society, environment, and destination. Tourists' awareness of the effects of their behaviour can affect their behaviour intentions and actual conduct. Hence, it is necessary for DMs to use available tools like shock advertising to create awareness. Literature has shown shock advertising is a strong strategy for creating awareness of social issues (Dahl *et al.*, 2003).

## **2:20: Theoretical Orientations or Methodologies**

Recently, social marketing has come under a lot of scrutiny due to the alleged nonexistence of a theoretical framework (Wallack, 2002). According to Nicholson and Xiao (2011), social marketing has had a huge overdependence on traditional marketing principles and strategies such as segmentation and inability to incorporate "vigorous psychological theories, despite its

stated goal of managed behavioural change” (p. 2530). This section describes in detail the theoretical framework that has guided the research—schema incongruity theory. It explains why it has been preferred to other frameworks and how it is used in tourism advertising research.

Schema incongruity theory is made up of congruity and the schema theory which have been applied successfully in social psychology and used for explaining attitude formation (Orth and Holancova, 2003) and processing and evaluating behaviour (Alina and Loan, 2013).

Schema incongruity theory was formed from the notion that a new experience is usually comprehended from a collection of similar experiences held in memory. The unique experience is then processed from either conformity or deviation from schemata that one holds. This could relate to sensory data (Cook, 1990). Congruity (incongruity) in advertising can be defined as “a match (or mismatch) between a stimulus element (e.g., product, brand, endorser, music, or any execution element in an advertisement) and the existing schema that one holds about the advertising stimulus” (Lee and Schumann, 2004, p. 59). Schema incongruity theory can be defined briefly as a person’s dispensation of inappropriateness their schema has directed (Dens *et al.*, 2008). “A schema is a knowledge structure or the semantic network structure regarding an object which serves as a framework for forming judgement” (Lee and Schumann, 2004, p. 60). Incongruent advertisements are sometimes used in social marketing by employing or modifying existing components of the surroundings in an unexpected way to surprise the specific audience and create awareness of certain health and communal problems (Jurca and Madlberger, 2015). Numerous effects of congruity have been documented in advertising research on social and commercial marketing (Anghelcev and Sar, 2014). Many social marketing researchers have employed schema incongruity theory, such as preventive health behaviours (Rothman *et al.*, 2006), ambient advertising effectiveness (Jurcaa and Madlberger, 2015), recycling (Anghelcev and Sar, 2014), and consumers’ attention, involvement, and attitudes (Kim and Kim, 2015).

Studies have shown many young people become exposed to hours and hours of media consumption and promotion clusters which desensitise them to the advertising message (Strasburger *et al.*, 2007). Consumers are becoming savvier as they begin to understand marketers’ tactics and develop schemas as a protective mechanism (Dahlén and Edenius, 2007). Therefore, once they encounter advertising messages that trigger their schemata, they ignore the ad, flip through the pages, or skip the ad (Alina and loan, 2013). Brown (2004) found the audience ignores the advertisement once a schema is activated; though consequently, if the new experience does not fit into any schema, then mental ability is required to resolve the inconsistency between the unique knowledge and existing schemata.

Essentially, understanding an individual's advertising schemas is necessary in shaping their future response to advertising (Dahlén and Edenius, 2007).

## **2.21 Optional Theoretical Considerations**

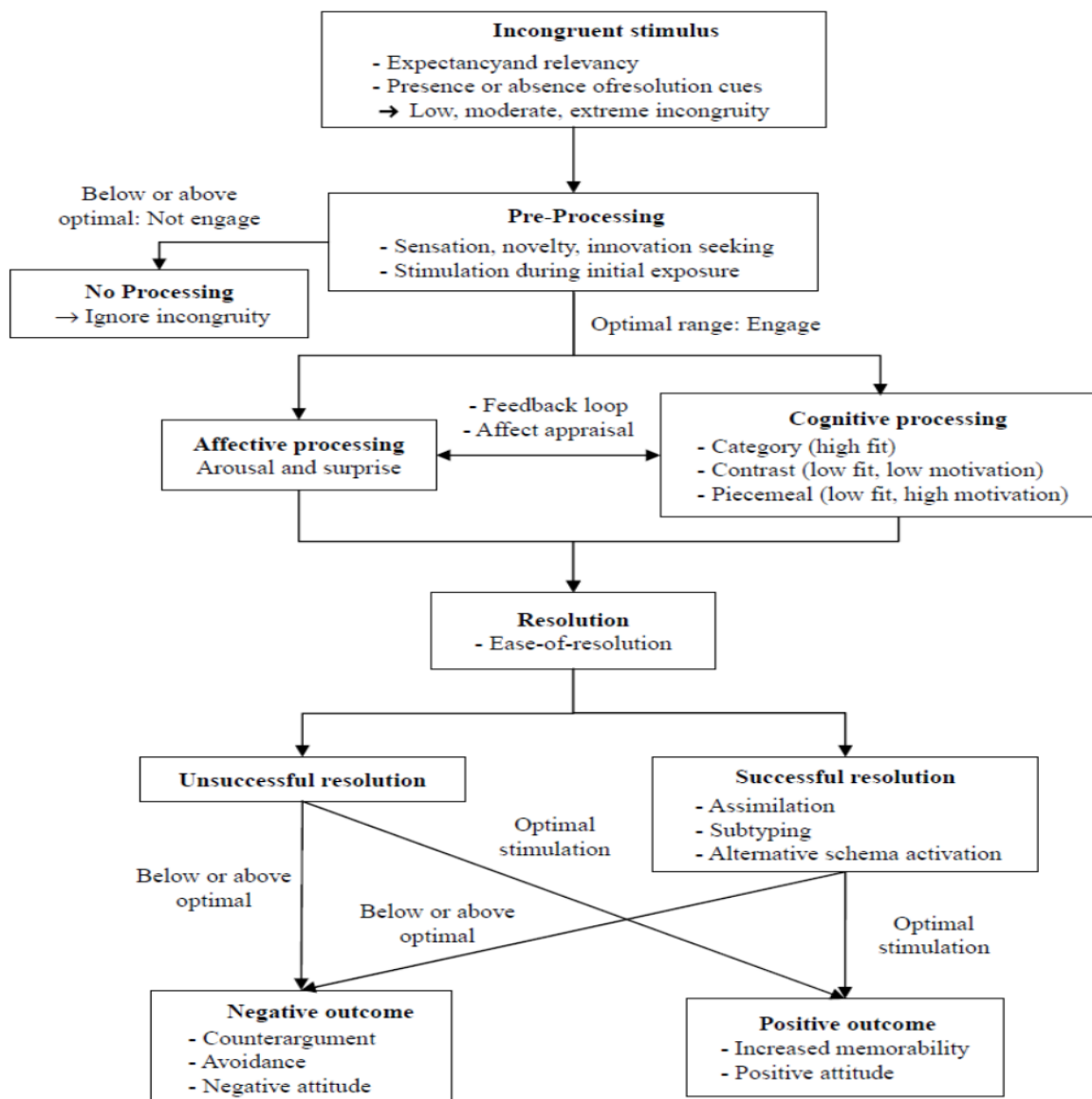
### **2.21.1 Optimal Stimulation Level (OSL) Theory**

This theory works on the notion that individuals need varying levels of stimulation and when an OSL is reached, it will result in positive outcomes such as enhanced performance and positive feelings (Yoon, 2013). It further states a person's behaviour is profoundly affected by their willingness to achieve a level of stimulation (Orth and Bourrain, 2005) and suggests the amount of stimulation individuals are willing to be exposed to is dependent on their "arousal-seeking disposition" (Mehta *et al.*, 2013, p.820). The theory proposes individuals with higher optimal stimulation levels are keen to remain in an environment with higher stimulus intensity and variety and are more sensitive unlike individuals with lesser optimum stimulation levels (Grossbart *et al.*, 1975; Mehta *et al.*, 2013). Individuals have a natural yearning for variance in stimulation, and when their OSL is reached, it can result in positive outcomes such as better memory, improved attention, and higher performance (Yoon, 2013). Yoon (2013) proposed an individual's incongruity is more strongly correlated with Mandler's schema theory than Lee and Schumann's (2004) elaboration likelihood model (ELM) and supported a combination of both frameworks to understand consumer's reaction further when exposed to incongruity in shock advertisements. The integration of both structures helps acknowledge the respondent's perception of the discrepancy in the ad.

There are three stages that an individual can go through while trying to assimilate an incongruent message: pre-processing, processing, and resolution phases. In the pre-processing step, if the inconsistency is too low, it will probably lead to the audience ignoring the message. Consequently, if inconsistency is too high, it may cause anxiety and message block. In the processing stage, consumers are engaged in cognitive and affective behaviour where information is retrieved from the individual's schemata. Congruent information is easily assimilated while incongruent messages then undergo the piecemeal process wherein, they are aggregated according to their attributes (Yoon, 2013). Furthermore, if the incongruent message falls in an individual's optimum stimulation level and a high motivation level is achieved, then the individual will find a means to resolve the incongruity and vice versa (Yoon, 2013). Figure 2.10 below helps explain the different stages in which the incongruent stimulus is processed.



Figure 2.10: Incongruent Message Processing Stages (Yoon, 2013)



Nevertheless, the OSL theory has a few limitations. First, it sometimes does not act as a mediating variable which can then affect consumer exploratory behaviour (Joachimsthaler and Lastovicka, 1984). Also, the degree of congruency or incongruency is unclear and this a huge determining factor when trying to measure incongruity as there is a difference in reaction to ads that are moderating and extremely incongruent. As a result, this model was abandoned (Wahlers and Etzel, 1990). Finally, the incongruity in ads can be formed in diverse ways and other variables such as behavioural intention, attitude toward the ad, and visit intention must be accessed for its success (Yoon *et al.*, 2013).

### 2.21.2 Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM)

The ELM theory includes two processes of attitude formation and decision making. The decision-making stage takes place at various levels of elaboration (Kobsa *et al.*, 2016). It “explains attitude formation, persuasion, and behavioural changes through external information processing” (Yoo *et al.*, 2016, p. 3). According to the ELM theory, the individual typically uses one of two routes to process information: the central route or peripheral route. The central route involves a long elaboration process and uses a thorough process in forming attitudes and behaviour with information available about the products such as product characteristics and the superiority of products compared to others. The central route requires more cognitive effort as it involves a lot of information assessment and formation of a reasoned attitude (Yoo *et al.*, 2016). For instance, a tourist who looks at the destination information and activities to do before deciding to travel is using the central route. Attitude change is usually more consistent with the central path as consumers are well-informed (Bhattacharjee and Sanford, 2006). On the other hand, the peripheral course uses a low elaboration process as individuals rely on “easily accessible cues, such as their mood, general feelings, consensus feelings” (Kobsa *et al.*, 2016, p. 2589; Slovic *et al.*, 2004). Unlike the central route, the peripheral course requires less cognitive effort and bases its decisions on general impressions or positive and negative cues (Yoo *et al.*, 2016). The ELM theory proposes individuals differ and will use a processing route depending on their interest, motivation, and ability (Yoo *et al.*, 2016).

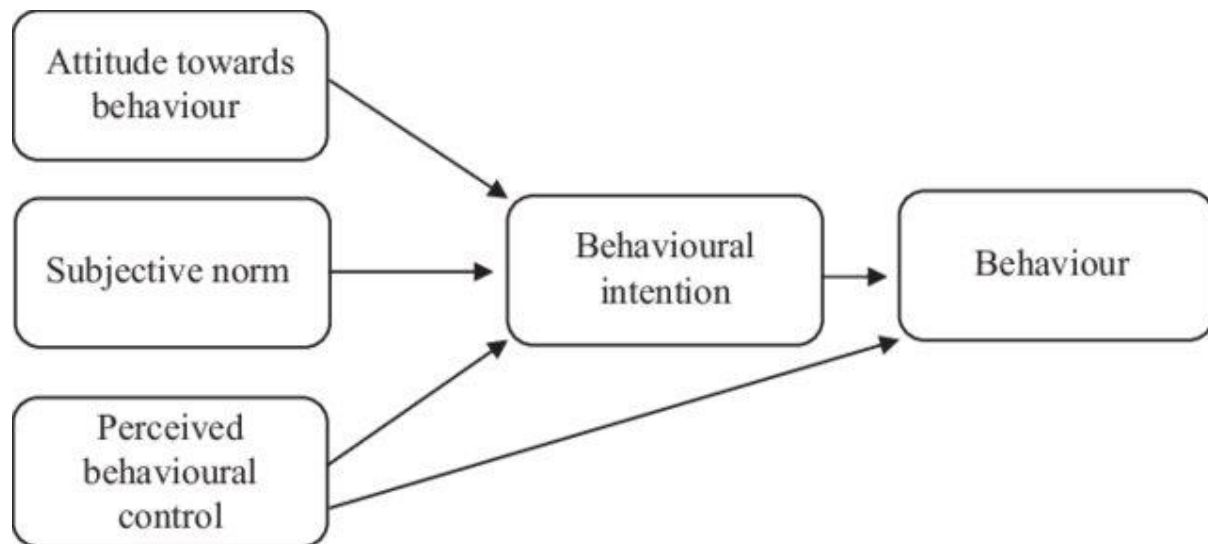
The ELM theory has its limitations. These include the inability to differentiate central cues from external signals such as the destination beauty and the satisfaction one will get from taking a break at a beach destination. Furthermore, it ultimately does not distinguish which of the variables would serve as a strong or weak cue and whether the variables affect information processing (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986b). Finally, marketing communication has evolved since the ELM model was formulated in the 80s. Therefore, the rise of the media environment and the way consumers process advertisement may have also moved on (Kitchen, 2013). For instance, Hershberger (2003) did not find any significance in using the ELM model to assess message involvement in attitude formation in the online context.

### 2.21.3 Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)

The TPB model typically measures the intention, attitude, and subjective norms toward the behaviour. This model is commonly used to envisage an individual’s behavioural intention (Araujo-Soares *et al.*, 2018; Aycinena *et al.*, 2017; Chin and Mansori, 2019; Langford *et al.*, 2018). The TPB model suggests behaviour can be measured by two core distinct components:

the individual's behavioural intentions and the perceived behavioural control (Boissin *et al.*, 2019). The model posits intentions result from these three main components: a) the individual's attitude toward the behaviour (i.e., positive, or negative), b) subjective norms (i.e., supposed societal pressure to enact the behaviour), and c) the perceived behavioural control (i.e., the individual ability in carrying out the action; Procter *et al.*, 2019).

Figure 2.11: Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 2002)



The TPB model has been used to understand addictive behaviours such as speeding (Boissin *et al.*, 2019), gambling (Procter *et al.*, 2019), eating habits ((Canova *et al.*, 2020), alcohol-related behaviours (Jeong *et al.*, 2018), exercise habits (Pang *et al.*, 2017), and dating violence (Lemay *et al.*, 2019).

However, the TPB model has a few limitations. First, it does not consider the unconscious factors that may affect behaviour, such as the role of emotions (Conner *et al.*, 2013). Secondly, it does not take environmental and economic factors into consideration, given that these may impact an individual's ability to carry out such behaviour. Thirdly, behavioural theories like TPB are designed around the attitude-intention-behaviour format and do not consider other mediating variables (Evans *et al.*, 2006). Additionally, TPB is very descriptive and does not fully explain the impact of behaviour on future behaviour and perceptions (McEachan *et al.*, 2011), articulate strategies that could change behaviour, or delineate how behaviours occur or how to measure them (Jebarajakirthy *et al.*, 2017). Finally, it fails to account for factors like fear, threat, and emotions that may influence an individual's behavioural intentions.

Since this research is focused on how shock advertising can discourage tourists' behavioural patterns, this theory was deemed unsuitable as it needed to look at how threat and shock tactics can play a vital role.

#### 2.21.4 Social Cognitive Theory (SCT)

According to Eslami *et al.* (2018), SCT is a vital model that can be applied to comprehend and illustrate risky behaviours. For instance, it has been used to study risky behaviours like bullying (Burk *et al.*, 2019), substance use (Shin *et al.*, 2017), violence (Smith *et al.*, 2017), and binge drinking (Burke and Stephens 1999). It can be employed to explain how individuals continue addictive behaviours and uses variables like information the individual has on the positives and negatives of healthy practices, motivation, social support, self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and barriers and obstacles that can hinder a change in behaviour (Bandura, 2004). Hence, human behaviour is explained in terms of the connection that exists between the environment, the person, and the person's actual behaviour. There is a shared cause and effect in which modification in one factor would cause changes in the other two factors (Bandura, 1986).

SCT suggests people see the actions of other individuals, assess whether the penalties of those behaviours are good or bad, and then decide how to behave based on their interpretation of these factors (Burk *et al.*, 2019). According to Bandura (2002), the four-step process of attention, retention, production, and motivation directs observational learning. First, background features like appeal, significance, and need grab attention. Then, retention draws emphasis on following the observed actions and the repercussions. Production targets interpreting the behaviour in the relevant contexts and making necessary amendments based on received criticism. Finally, motivation processes involve checking whether the characterised behaviour is endorsed based on the individual's actions, reactions from others, or instinctive inducements.

SCT has limitations just like other models. One limitation is a good outcome or solution may not necessarily come from learning through observing others' behaviours; rather, an adverse scenario may arise (Bandura, 2002). Another important limitation is that although the theory states an alternation in the environmental factor would consequently lead to a change in an individual's actions, this is not always the case. Also, SCT does not account for emotions which could alter behaviour and justify past experiences, though hormonal tendencies may sometimes influence behaviours. Although SCT has been frequently employed in the clarification of risky actions like sexual behaviours on TV and other media channels, it has mainly served as a descriptive instrument for such studies (Nabi and Clark, 2008). The model was discarded because it did not account for incongruity in advertisements nor the role of emotions. Because the study is not really focused on the role of communal or model behaviour influence on an individual, it was deemed unsuitable for this study.

## 2.22 Incongruity in Tourism Advertising

There are conflicting findings on the impact of congruence and incongruence in advertising on memory, understanding, and attitude (Dahl *et al.*, 2009; Yoon, 2013; Zanjani *et al.*, 2011). In the early 90s, about 44% of ads had incongruent or vague brand information (Peracchio and Meyers-Levy, 1994). Recently, there has been a growing trend in the print advertising sector (Callister and Stern, 2007). The tourism industry is where most ads are characteristically visual (Dann, 1996). Most tourism advertisements are promotional ads and experience-based, making pictures a very crucial element when communicating with tourists (Mackay and Fesenmaier, 1997). When using a print medium for their advertisements, most DMOs tend to combine pictures with a message. Advertising affords organisations the means to distinguish themselves from other players through the way the message is sent. Research into tourism advertising indicates it can help create awareness of the destination, change attitudes, and increase tourists' expenditures and visitation. The impact of advertising does not only increase the number of inbound tourists, but it also has a lasting effect on revisit intention (Bojanic, 1991).

DMs are essential decision makers in the process of designing and planning destination communication campaigns and messages; thus, their perceptions of creative strategies are critical to understanding the selection of some strategies over others. Destination advertising is surprisingly very competitive in today's environment, as various tourists' locations strive to increase their footfall (Buhalis, 2000). Tourists have a large selection of options to choose from and it is the DMOs responsibility to attract them to their destinations by differentiating themselves from their competitors. In respect to DMOs, advertising is a crucial way they communicate with tourists and the main element of their entire marketing campaign and strategy.

Given the highly competitive nature in the tourism sector and what destinations receive tourists' expenditures, DMOs must strive to find unconventional ways to send their message while maintaining message effectiveness. Innovative advertising helps an organisation meet the needs of its audience and target market. The use of incongruent information that is incompatible with the audience's previously developed schemata is one approach they can utilise (Lee and Mason, 1999). Incongruency in an advertisement is thought to attract the audience's attention, aid in memorability, and improve attitudes toward the advertisements (Laczniak and Muehling, 1993). Singh and Hu (2012) found unexpectedness of pictures in tourism ads was useful, but the images needed to be relevant to the ad message. They suggested DMs use creative ways to advertise their destinations but ensure that pictures and

messages are relevant or else tourists may report unfavourable attitudes toward the advertisement.

Incongruity in advertising has been investigated from the viewpoint of the consumers and their reactions to and perceptions of these ads (Heckler and Childers, 1992). However, there is lack of research in the tourism sector on whether DMOs are advertising their destinations congruently or incongruently (Singh and Formica, 2006). Also, the schema DMs have regarding the application of shock advertisements as an instrument in controlling tourists' behaviours is vital. Frequently, DMs are accountable for ensuring that necessary endeavours are taken to manage tourists' actions, and this research centred on grasping DMs' discernment on the usage of the communication techniques in dealing with tourist misbehaviours, and their knowledge on the use of such an approach may help in determining the level of incongruency that can be used in print ads.

According to Skavronskaya *et al.* (2017), some terms used in tourism relate to a schema. For instance, a destination image is defined as "a mental structure that integrates the elements, impressions, and values people project onto a specific place" (Huang *et al.*, 2010, p. 255). This may refer to a general destination schema (Merchant, 2016). For example, visitors to a country like Spain can have an overall schema of a beach destination and this may signify their collective knowledge of that kind of destination. This shared knowledge they hold simplifies their perception and assessment of this specific beach destination and helps draw a mental picture especially for tourists that may have never been to this destination (Skavronskaya *et al.*, 2017). Destination images are a crucial component to most tourism research; yet research on how an individual's schema may influence destination images is underutilised.

## **2.23 Schema Theory**

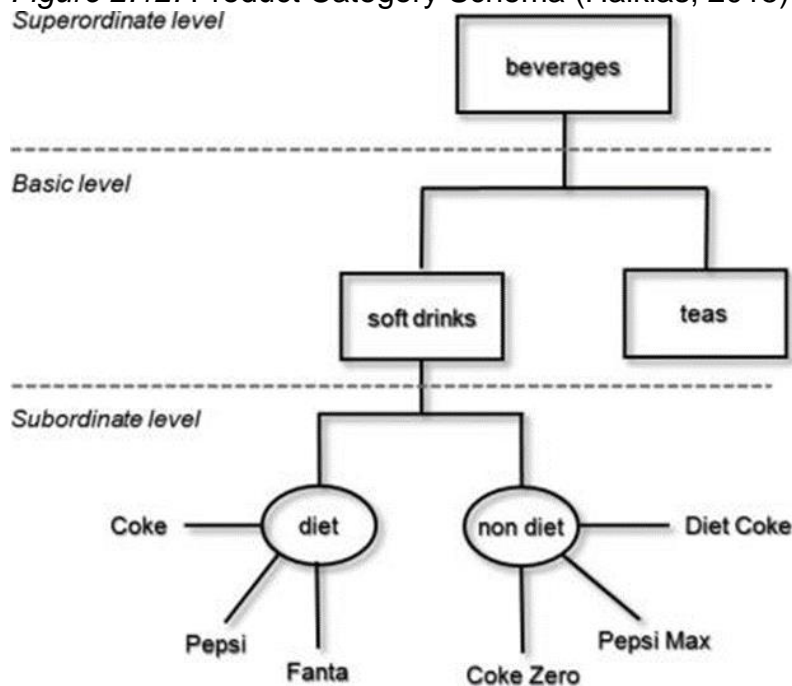
"Schema theory explains that we use templates (called schema) to orient our perceptions of stimuli and also to guide our interpretations of the meaning of those stimuli" (Potter *et al.*, 2002, p. 28). Schemata are defined as previous knowledge individuals have stored in their memory that helps them identify an entire configuration of its defining and relevant characteristics (Fiske and Taylor, 1991). A person's schemata are not inherited but rather learned over time to guide their perception of social stimuli that they encounter every day. A schema is seen as an individual's construction of cognition which allows them to go outside of the information they have received and apply their interpretations and inferences to situations in a similar context (Bruner, 1996). The individual's knowledge influences his or her perception in understanding the pictorial stimuli.

Halkias (2015) proposed schemata in marketing literature have been studied across three dimensions: 1) product category schemata, 2) brand schemata, and 3) advertising schemata.

### 2.23.1 Product Category Schema

Product category schema is a predefined information set that an individual holds that defines the characteristics of a product category in comparison to other groups. Product category schemata have three levels—the superordinate, basic, and subordinate levels. For instance, although Coca-Cola and Lipton Iced Tea are similar because they are both in the beverage category, they differ in many ways. Additionally, Coca-Cola has various types such as Diet-Cola and Coca-Cola Zero. Consumers make use of these categories to inform decisions and associations as they move from one level to the other in their schemata. Figure 2.12 shows the way they can be categorised.

*Figure 2.12: Product Category Schema (Halkias, 2015)*



### 2.23.2 Brand Schema

The brand schema defines the connotations that customers attribute to the brand, which include the benefits and overall attitude toward the brand (Halkias and Kokkinaki, 2013). It sums up all the knowledge about the useful and representative values and associations about the brand, and this could be descriptive and evaluative (Brannon and Brock, 2006). Brand schemas go further than product schemas as they sometimes deal with attributes that are not

pertinent (Halkias, 2015). Brand knowledge analyses that consumers hold of the product are usually linked to some key product attributes and functions. Brand knowledge that consumers hold may be related to brand image. For instance, Chanel handbags are classy, expensive, and stand the test of time. Also, brand personality is another schema that consumers could hold, and this occurs when individuals tend to describe brands as an entity. For instance, in the automobile sector, BMW cars are cool and trendy while Volkswagen is more practical and family oriented.

### 2.23.3 Advertising Schema

According to Halkias (2015), “schemata are developed by repeated experience by abstracting the general properties of a given stimulus domain which advertising falls under” (p. 442). This research is based on the premise of understanding tourists’ schema to a style of advertising. Ad schemas are learned from constant exposure to advertisements as the audience form their expectations of what to expect in a specific manner of ads. These expectations individuals develop create their ad schema. An interesting fact about advertising schema is they are generally built around product category information. According to Stoltman (1991), ad schema organises knowledge of advertisements according to their layout, appeals, pictorial contents, characters, implementation styles, acoustic components, props, and acts (e.g., a family scene). Hence, ads for similar product categories tend to look alike. For example, promotional tourism ads are usually centred around showing interesting places to visit, activities to do, and hotel and restaurants to visit, which would differ considerably from a fashion ad.

Regardless, the role of the advertising department is to try to distinguish their brands from their competitors; hence, most commercial advertising is centred on “brand idiosyncrasies rather than generic category expectations” (Halkias, 2015, p. 442). For instance, Benetton ads highlighted social issues such as racism, poverty, and death sentences and focused on shock images, differentiate it from other similar fashion organisations. Therefore, the application of shock advertising in tourism, although not the norm, could distinguish the ad from other typical advertising and thus create brand eccentricity.

The three different schemata—brand, product, and ad—are all strongly correlated and therefore rarely function in isolation. Hence, depending on the stimuli, any of these three schemata can be activated at different levels. According to Halkias (2015), the brand schema is central to consumer information structure. The brand is the focus as it mediates the ad and product schemata and is essential for decision making.



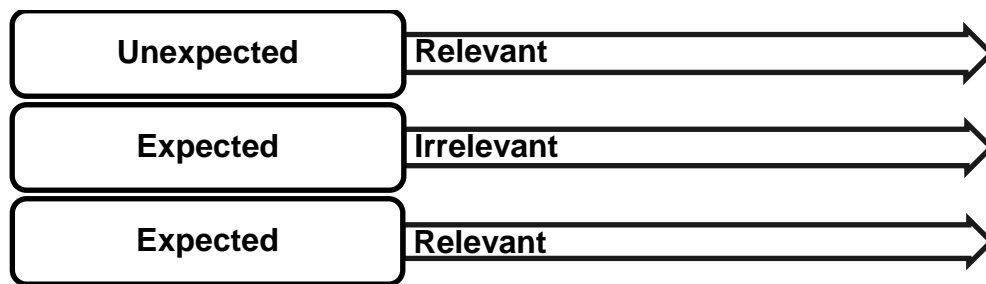
## 2.24 Schema Incongruity Theory

The conceptualisation of incongruity may seem easy, but there are numerous ways in which this can be formulated in advertising, making its functionality more difficult (Yoon, 2013). Congruity theory was first used to explain attitude formation (Jagre *et al.*, 2001). Congruency and incongruency in advertising have been studied in various ways with conflicting reports on the effectiveness of such strategies (Dahlén *et al.*, 2008; Jagre *et al.*, 2001; Singh and Formica, 2006; Singh and Hu, 2012). Nonetheless, a lot of research has found incongruency increases ad memorability. For instance, Dahlén *et al.* (2008) found congruity in magazines lowers attention and ad memory. Halkias and Kokkinaki (2013) proposed moderate incongruity leads to favourable attitudes toward the ad and brand awareness. The schema incongruity theory has been chosen as the theoretical model underpinning this study as it is widely used in advertising and tourism research (Dimofte *et al.*, 2004; Orth and Holancova, 2003; Srivastava and Sharma, 2012; Yoon, 2013).

Schema incongruity theory was selected because of its relevance and the relationship between advertising schema and the schema congruity theory (Alina and Loan, 2013). The schema theory has been applied successfully in social psychology and used to explain attitude formation (Orth and Holancova, 2003) and to process and evaluate behaviour (Alina and Loan, 2013). The schemas individuals form help guide their cognitive processing of the information they encounter in everyday life, such as through media and advertising (Smith and Granados, 2009). It is also beneficial to discuss the application of shock advertisements in problematic tourist behaviour.

According to Heckler and Childers (1992), schema incongruity in advertising can be measured with two components that play a role in determining the degree of inconsistency with existing schemas—expectancy and relevancy. In this context, expectancy refers to the extent to which the ad meets consumer expectations, whereas relevancy implies the degree to which the ad provides the necessary information about the product or services, helping the audience to make a cognitive decision. Within this framework, the three different scenarios expected, and unexpected advertisements can take concerning the relevancy of the message are as illustrated in Figure 2.13 below:

Figure 2.13: Expectancy and Relevancy (Heckler and Childers, 1992)



Mandler (1982) proposed schema congruity will produce a positive response because generally, individuals prefer situations they can easily relate to and are expected (Meyers-Levy and Tybout, 1989).

On the other hand, when schema incongruity is encountered, arousal rises, and an increased mental augmentation may occur to resolve the inconsistency (Meyers-Levy and Tybout, 1989). Despite that, moderate mismatches can be effectively resolved. They further argued when consumers are faced with a discrepancy, they will employ internal processes like assimilation or accommodation to address them. Throughout this process, behaviours, attitudes, and affective responses are formed when consumers are successful in resolving the incongruity.

The framework proposes stimuli that are congruent with an individual's schema are not arousing enough if they are already familiar (e.g., a baby in a diaper) and will therefore result in a mild or no positive behaviour change or evaluation. However, in the case of extreme incongruity (e.g., baby in roller skates or an Evian water advertisement), individuals will attempt to accommodate severe incongruity by participating in a purposeful mental process to reinterpret incongruent information or reorganise current schema structure. If individuals are still unable to resolve severe incongruity even after making substantial changes to their current schema, this may consequently lead to a negative effect on the brand as they may dismiss the product. For example, Evian water sales dropped by 1.9% in the first half of 2009 after the "Roller Babies" advertisement (Danone's website). While a moderate stimuli effect will lead to more positive evaluations as individuals realise, they can quickly solve the problem and resolve the schema conflict, this can produce a positive feeling toward the mildly incongruent message. Mandler (1982) proposed the response to congruity or incongruity can create an effect that will positively reinforce the advertising message. Shock advertising is incongruent because it is not the norm but may lead to a positive brand evaluation, memorability, and reaction from the consumers if they are relatively congruent with the existing brand or organisation schemas (Dens *et al.*, 2008).

There are three levels of congruity or incongruity that can arise between the ad and an individual schema: congruity, moderate incongruity, and extreme incongruity.

#### 2.24.1 Congruity

Schema congruity occurs when new processed and evaluated information matches expectations, thus requiring little or no cognition processing (Srull *et al.*, 1985). An individual can also transfer their feelings, attitudes, and emotions toward a schema to another similar schema (Fiske and Pavelchak, 1986). For example, if an individual dislike's theme parks, he or she can transfer that same dislike to an advertisement that comes on even before viewing it. Congruity theory helps determine how an individual's expectations can affect their processing and evaluation of information.

#### 2.24.2 Moderate Incongruity

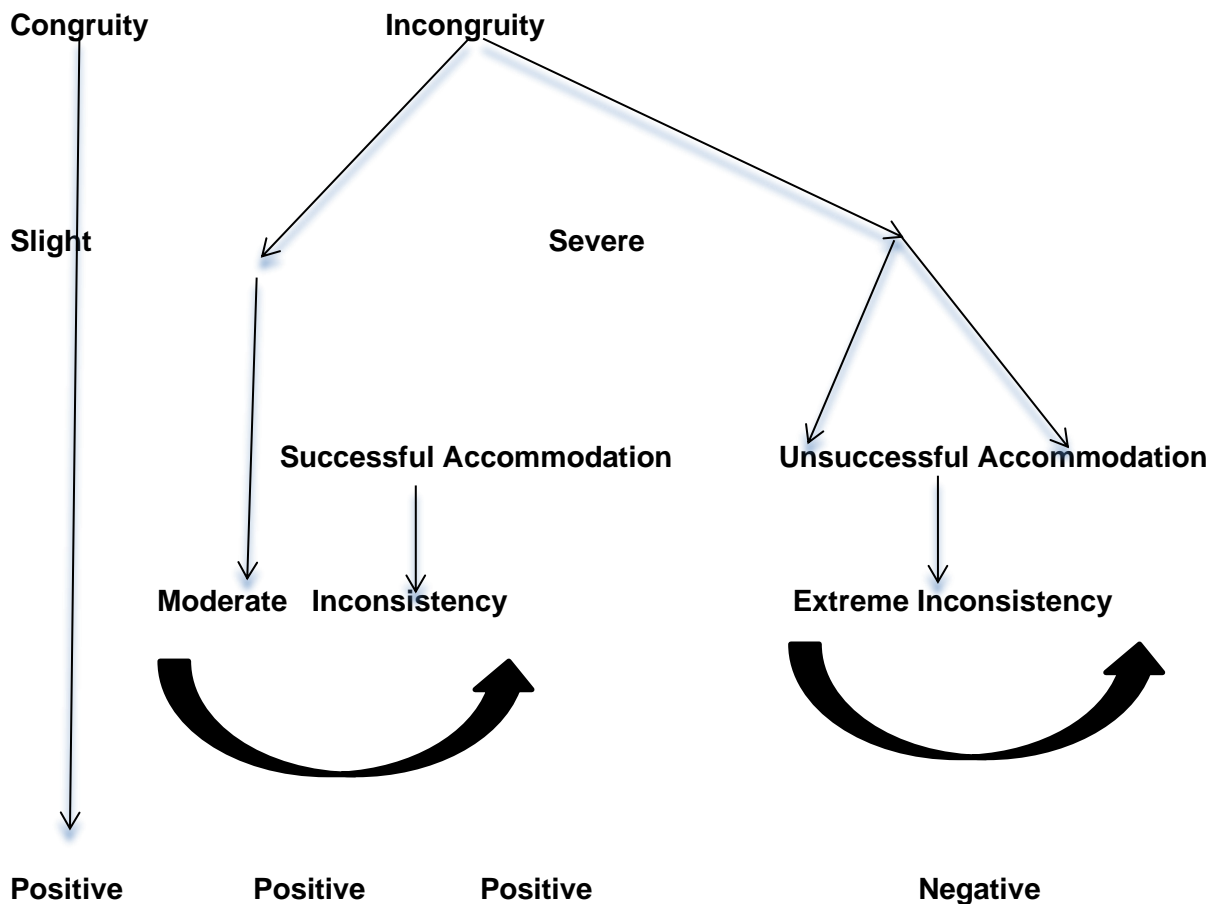
Schema inconsistency happens when the provided information does not match with an individual's body of knowledge on a subject matter, product, service, or information. According to Srivastava and Sharma (2012), moderate incongruity is more arousing and exciting and thus produces more elaboration. When individuals can resolve the moderate incongruity regarding information provided about a product or service, it can heighten awareness, produce better understanding of the features of the product or services, and ease use of such services or product (Srivastava and Sharma ,2012). When products or services are relevant, motivated individuals can easily reconcile moderate incongruity within their schema. When this is done, it provides satisfaction when a resolution is reached (Mandler, 1982). Moderate incongruity does not only produce satisfaction when it has been resolved but also favourable responses (Meyers-Levy *et al.*, 1994).

#### 2.24.3 Extreme Incongruity

Extreme incongruity, on the other hand, arises when the information provided differs significantly from the consumer's expectations and schemata. According to Srivastava and Gandhi (2012) "extremely incongruent brands extensions are characterised by a high score on incongruence; they do not share the feature set of the parent brand, show a change in usage, and are completely different from the existing products of the parent brand" (p. 657). Extreme incongruity results in low awareness, high discomfort in the use of the products, and less understanding of the features of the product or services. Heckler and Childers (1992) tested extreme incongruity on print ads and found the ad pictures were easily remembered.

However, there was a delay in recognising the brand. On the other hand, moderate incongruity performed best on both awareness and recognition tests.

Figure 2.14: Schema Congruity/Incongruity Theory (Mandler, 1982)

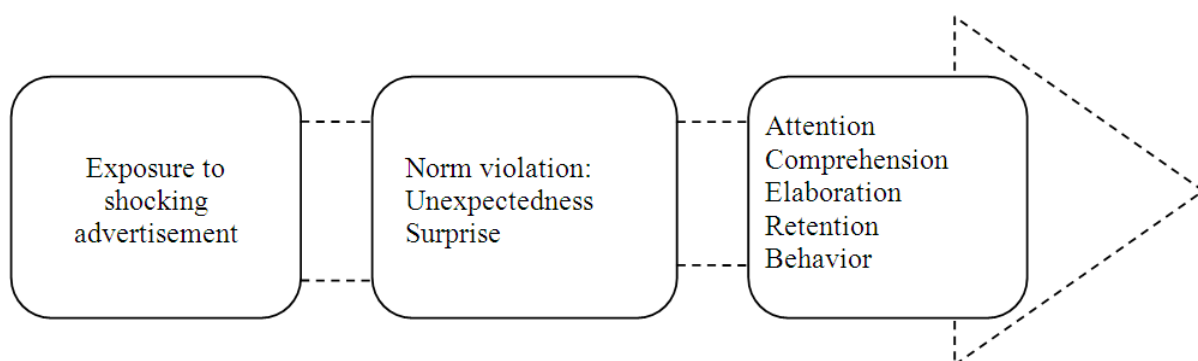


Shock advertisement contains unconventional words and atypical pictures and can act as a driver for the surprise element that grabs the audience's attention. According to Dahl *et al.* (2003), when an individual is exposed to shock advertisement, the norm violation and unexpectedness create the surprise element as they were not expecting the picture or wording in the ad. Shock ads challenge an individual's expectations of the ad and information relating to the ad that they have saved in the current schemata, and the perceived incongruence creates shock (Alden *et al.*, 2000). Surprise occurs when an individual is exposed to shock content due to the unexpectedness of the message or picture in the ad and this may startle the audience. Conversely, if there is a relevancy of the product or service to the individual, he or she may be able to reconcile the incongruence in the ad within his or her existing schemata. Mandler's (1982) schemata congruency theory proposes the longer an individual uses to

digest an incongruent message that does not match their current schemata, the longer the cognitive process toward positively enhancing memory.

Dahl *et al.* (2003) proposed the model below (Figure 2.15) on the flow of a shock advertisement and how consumers may react to it. They stated when a consumer is exposed to the shock advertisement, it produces a feeling of surprise and unexpectedness as the ad has broken norms and traditions which then consequently grabs their attention, thus producing elaboration and retention of the advertisement message and leading to a behaviour change. The surprise element helps further cognition as the consumer seeks to understand the message, and this, in turn, results in memory retention (Heckler and Childers, 1992).

Figure 2.15: Shock Advertisement Processing Stages (Dahl, 2003)



Another aspect that should be considered when looking at shock ads is the creativity of the content because it will lose its effectiveness when over flogged. Baack *et al.* (2008) described creative ads as advertisements that are highly unique and relevant. Some of the components of “creativity include originality (uniqueness), flexibility (multiple ideas), synthesis (able to connect unrelated ideas), elaboration (contains numerous details), and artistic value (visually distinctive)” (Wilson *et al.*, 2015, p. 239). Creativity in advertising is made up of two components—execution and relevancy. These two dimensions of creativity relate to the schema incongruity model wherein the performance of the ad works with the unexpectedness of the shock ad and the relevance of the message. Creativity is a tool that can be used to create a moderate level of incongruity to positively influence the effectiveness of the ad for attention (Alina and Loan, 2013). Attention to the ad is critical because it can improve memory of the brand, product, or services (Wilson *et al.*, 2015). Enhanced elaboration and processing are the uniqueness of incongruity as it boosts arousal (Mandler, 1982). This in depth, elaborative processing should lead to enhanced memorability (Heckler and Childer, 1992; Srull *et al.*, 1985).

## 2.25 Schema Incongruity Theory and Tourists Behaviour

Many researchers have provided evidence that media campaigns and advertising can influence our opinions, way of life, attitude, and behaviours on societal issues such as AIDS, obesity, unhealthy habits, and violence (Noar *et al.*, 2009). According to Sayre (2006), there has been an increase in public broadcasting of sensitive subjects such as sexual violence, pregnancy termination, and addiction. In trying to raise awareness, stakeholders usually employ negative emotional appeals such as shock tactics as persuasive strategies to target the audience and effectively grab their attention. Many times, these ads are used to warn viewers of the repercussions of their adverse behaviours (Thainiyom and Elder, 2017). For instance, many social cause advertisements aimed at reducing violence employ measures such as attitudes toward the ad and behavioural changes (Zlatevska and Spence, 2012).

Tourism is one of the most spectacular phenomena currently. It plays a major role in the advancement of destination. However, it does have some adverse implications in terms of the environment and sociocultural settings. One of the main areas giving rise to this is the unsustainable behaviour of the tourism sector stakeholders. It is therefore essential that misbehaviours are managed to alleviate their effects and for this sector to continue to grow. Social marketing can be a tool used to help change these misbehaviours. In targeting intended behavioural change, shock tactics have been applied in many social marketing strategies ranging from antismoking campaigns, advertisements warning against alcohol use, sustainability of the environment, road safety, domestic violence, and many other health campaigns.

A lot of research has been conducted to fully understand the processes involved in the comprehension and attention paid to ads and how to measure the extent to which the audience processed the information presented in the ad (Jagre *et al.*, 2001). Congruity helps individuals realise familiarity, comfort, and a sense of belonging and liking (Mandler, 1982). Familiar ads do not challenge the audience's existing schema and are not very emotionally alarming (i.e., low degree of emotion arousal). That is, familiar situations are not noticeable, so the effective cognition is mild.

On the other hand, Mandler (1982) opined when the information presented is incongruent and does not fit with the individual's expectations, it leads to greater elaboration that results in the formation of behavioural attitude (Heckler and Childers 1992). Mandler's incongruity theory has been applied to understand how incongruent information affects the attitudes of consumers towards products and services. Incongruity in messages creates tension that leads to better processing, which occurs from the need to release tension through resolution

(Mandler, 1982). Therefore, many researchers believe incongruity creates more considerable attention than congruity and thus provides a more positive evaluation (Lee and Schumann, 2004).

To attract audience attention, many social marketers employ incongruent advertisements because they have the potential to increase awareness and attitude formation which will impact behaviour in the long run. According to Halkias and Kokkinak (2014), marketing executives may employ incongruent tactics to help improve their message efforts by grabbing the audiences' attention and persuading them to participate in the communication process. Mandler (1982) developed one of the most used theoretical frameworks in comprehending schema incongruity and has been adopted in this research. Incongruity has unique characteristics such as creativity, unexpectedness, engagement, and elusiveness, and these features reinforce its effectiveness (Jurca and Madlberger, 2015).

Barnes (1999) proposed incongruent ads shock the audience by provoking them with graphic pictures they do not usually expect in that setting, persuading them to assimilate the stimulus. This implies that shock advertisements create schema incongruity, as it does not usually relate to the person's schemata in the said environment. For instance, Veer and Rank (2012) found shock graphic labels on tobacco packets boosted mental reasoning and behavioural intentions to stop or not engage in smoking. Their research indicated the mental processing of the shock visual images increased smokers' intentions to stop and could also be used to accelerate smoke-free campaigns. This potentially supports the use of graphic shock images to successfully deter probable behaviour or existing behaviour and could be used in the public policy sector. These social campaigns may appear initially unappealing but produce encouraging results long term (Veer *et al.*, 2008).

However, when these graphic images are displayed, ethical questions need to be addressed as there are apparently dangers of using shock appeals. For instance, there are indications that shock appeals may boost maladaptive threat-avoidance behaviours which may be averse to an individual's well-being and ineffective for individuals with low self-efficacy (Hastings *et al.*, 2004). The use of violent graphic content in social advertisements is a method organisations use to discourage disruptive behaviours and attitudes, even though its effectiveness is questionable (Zlatevska and Spence, 2012). They found violent social advertisements were great for decreasing latent affiliation with violence for individuals that do not have violent tendencies, although it had the opposite effect on aggressive individuals. Consequently, the use of such appeals in social marketing campaigns was not encouraged. However, this situation can be mitigated if certain audience members were targeted by not

employing mass media so unintended recipients are not exposed to the messages or images (Hastings *et al.*, 2004).

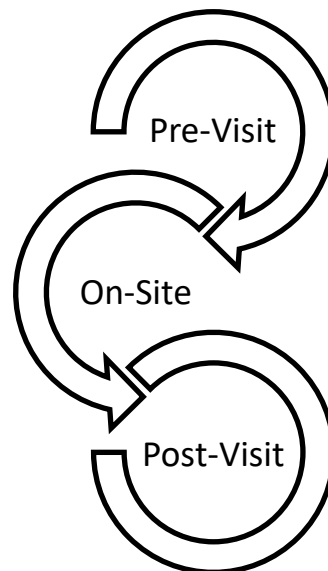
One of the main aims of organisations engaging in advertisements and other promotional activities is to create awareness. Awareness can be raised if consumers can remember the ad and information companies have passed on. There are contradictory results on the outcome of congruity or incongruity grabbing attention. Some researchers have suggested for a message to get an audience's attention, there must be congruity and relevancy between it and the individual's existing schema (Jagre *et al.*, 2001), while others (Halkias and Kokkinaki, 2013; Jurca and Madlberger, 2015), found moderate or extreme incongruity is better remembered as individual use a mild to average mental capability to process information and once a resolution is reached, they feel accomplished and satisfied. Jhang *et al.* (2012) found cognitive flexibility can be used to evaluate incongruent new products, which are then likely to increase overall consumer acceptance of the products. Yet, in the situation of extreme mismatch, if a resolution is not achieved, consumers tend to ignore the information given and most likely form their attitudes and opinions based on their previous evaluation of their existing schema. If they carry on trying to reconcile the information and are unable to resolve their responses, behaviours and attitudes will probably be adverse due to the frustration associated with futile efforts (Halkias and Kokkinaki, 2013). For incongruity to be effective in the advertising campaigns, consumers need to have the ability and motivation to carry out the cognitive mental strength required to process the message. Also, careful consideration should be taken to apply in the right context and that the information is relevant to the audience. In the use of schema congruity theory in advertisements, there are two implications for consumers and managers. The first is that it undermines the effectiveness of conventional marketing appeals as they are generally aimed at the audience's generic schemata. Second, it can be a useful tool for the creative marketer as it works by "using stimulus-based variables that violate the consumer's schema" (Dimofte *et al.*, 2004, p. 15).

Tourism behaviour can be examined via two main approaches: behavioural and cognitive. The behavioural approach details the relationship between the stimuli and the individual's response. This can be tourists' future behavioural intentions or emotions. While the cognitive approach looks at the mental process that occurs between stimuli and behaviour, the behavioural approach looks at the evaluation process of why an individual elicits some emotion (Ma *et al.*, 2013). This research will fall under the first approach. In terms of tourists' behaviours, they establish normality on what they hold in their schemas. Schemas, in a sense, allow tourists to see the "correlations between the stimulus, its attributes, and behavioural responses" (Casson, 1983, p. 430). According to Spielman (2016) "consumers would encode, decode, categorise and act according to the schemas they construct"(p.1131), and this is done



intuitively. The degree of congruency a tourist holds about the destination and its image will impact revisit intentions (Murphy *et al.*, 2007). According to Cohen *et al.* (2014), tourists' behaviour can be seen in three sections, which are shown in Figure 2.16:

Figure 2.16: Tourists' Behaviour Pre- and Post-Visit (Cohen *et al.*, 2014)



The schema the tourist holds plays a role in his pre-visit behaviour like the selection of destination and decision making, some of which occur prior to arrival and others during the destination (Choi *et al.*, 2012). Some of these decisions will involve planned, unplanned, and impulse behaviour (Hyde and Lawson, 2003). On-site action includes behavioural intentions, practices, dealing with the host community, managing their health and safety, and finding ways to enjoy themselves without taking unnecessary risks (Pearce, 2016). Post-visit behaviours include revisit intentions, recommending to friends and families, destination loyalty, and destination satisfaction.

Understanding tourists' behaviours is essential in planning for tourists' services, as it allows for stakeholders to assess the current and future tourists' actions. Monitoring tourists' behaviour can be time consuming and expensive, thereby making it difficult to be adequately done and impossible for some information to be used for tourism planning and decision making (Juvan *et al.*, 2017).

## 2.26 Justification for Choosing the Schema Incongruity Theory

Several other theories highlighted above were considered before the schema incongruity theory was chosen. Shock advertising and tourist behaviour have been studied using various theoretical considerations. After a thorough investigation, the schema incongruity/congruity

theory was an appropriate choice due to its usefulness in explaining how incongruity affects attitude and behaviour. Several kinds of research have found discrepancy in advertisements produces more considerable attention than congruity and has a higher degree of positive evaluation (Lee and Schumann, 2004). Since schema theory was first used in the 1920s in psychology, there has been much application of it in advertising. It has been used in conjunction with humour (Alden *et al.*, 2000), sexual portrays (Orth and Holancova, 2003), brand names (Meyers-Levy *et al.*, 1994), sponsorship (Fleck and Quester, 2007), and message appeals (Hong and Zinkhan, 1995). However, there are minimal studies on congruity and incongruity in tourism (Quan, 2016). Therefore, the use of schema incongruity in this study would expand the knowledge of its use in tourism, and it would be interesting to see if it has the same effects as that of marketing research.

According to Yoon (2013), incongruity can be used between the verbal and visual elements in an advert which suits the scenario attempting to portray. Incongruity can be established by using a familiar schema (e.g., a destination that looks like Spain) and providing an unexpected event (e.g., men fighting in the street). Alden *et al.* (2000) found incongruity generates surprise and results in positive attitude and familiar-unexpected advertisements had greater potential to do this than unfamiliar-unexpected advertisements.

The schema incongruity/congruity theory has been successful in explaining attitude formation (Orth and Holancova, 2003). Since this research is interested in assessing the attitude toward the advertisement, this theory was suitable for the purposes of this study as it will shed light on whether tourists' attitudes would change when exposed to shock tactics in advertisements. Shock advertisements are incongruent because they are usually noticeable and provoke attention (Vézina and Paul, 1997). To wholly comprehend how successful, they are in eliciting behavioural changes, concentration, and memory, the schema incongruity theory thoroughly explains the process. Schema-congruity of advertising impacts the processing and appraisal of the advertising messages. This can then determine if the ad message is successful or a failure (Heckler and Childers 1992). For instance, brand attributes that are moderately incongruent with a product schema attract more considerable consideration, more thorough processing, and positively appraised (Campbell and Goodstein, 2001). Hence, knowing how to formulate incongruity in the adverts or products is essential if higher cognition is to be achieved.

In designing persuasive communication, audience attention to these messages is difficult to achieve, so advertisers make use of incongruity to capture attention as this is commonly used in advertising practice (Lee and Schumann, 2004). These styles of advertising objectives are to either encourage the audience to form new attitudes or overcome prior knowledge and

beliefs. Tourists' attitudes comprise cognitive, affective, and behavioural components (Vincent and Thompson, 2002). The cognitive aspect helps the tourist form opinions which then make them act in a certain way. This research falls under the category of developing a powerful message that tourists can relate to and understanding how their attitudes and behaviour can impact not just themselves but others. For this reason, incongruity theory was suitable for this study.

## **2.27 Potential Weakness of the Schema Incongruity Theory**

While many researchers have used the schema congruity/incongruity theory to investigate various aspects of advertising, it has its limitations. One criticism of the schema congruity theory is other factors may interfere with message processing and this may affect the perception and resolution of incongruity (Lee and Schumann, 2004). For instance, concerning the brand schema, an audience that has a stable brand schema may see incongruent advertising as useful compared to a consumer without any affiliation to the brand. However, in terms of this research, fictitious destinations were used (i.e., locations with similarities to Spain but omitting transparency about tourists' particular location in Spain), so tourists would not already have a schema of the destination, and this will then be transferred to the findings.

Another criticism of the schema congruity theory is that the positive effect of moderately incongruent ads could be watered down when message repetitions occur, causing the gratifying feeling of resolution once achieved to weaken (Dahl *et al.*, 2009). However, this may be resolved by undertaking the experiment over a period to see the effect of multiple exposures on different levels of mismatch in the ad. From a theoretical perspective, it would be interesting to see how long the impact of ad incongruity would sustain over time.

Finally, there is also an issue of the different individual needs for cognition, which the schema congruity theory does not account for. Pechmann and Esteban (1994) found individuals with a high need for cognition are likely to elaborate the advertisement regardless of the advertisement type (i.e., incongruent, or congruent). These individuals enjoy the cognition and are less likely to be distracted and therefore pay attention irrespective of motivational factors or strategies the advertisers employ. Though, on the other hand, individuals with a low need for cognition lack such intrinsic motivation. For such individuals, brand and ad incongruity and congruity prompting and guiding elaboration may be necessary. This scenario is also applicable for high involvement and low involvement products as the evaluation of discrepancy with the ad schema differ for high involvement brands and vice versa for low involvement brands.

In conclusion, there are two different views of the connection that exists between ad context, incongruity, visual attention, and elaboration. First, there is the notion that perceived incongruity would lead to a mismatch in the audience's existing schema thus leading to discomfort and frustration over not being able to resolve the discrepancy and dismissal (Pieters *et al.*, 2010). On the other hand, it may lead to a favourable evaluation, enhancing memory retention, attitude, and behavioural changes from cognition (Heckler and Childers, 1992). This research aims to extend on the knowledge that exists on incongruence and how this would lead to higher elaboration, change in attitude, and tourists' misbehaviour. It also aims to identify how incongruity can be applied to DM's tourism communications to create a pleasant and conducive atmosphere for tourists and improve their destination image.

## **2.28 Conclusion**

Shock advertisement is effective in attracting attention, being memorable, and triggering behavioural change. It is seen as superior to conventional advertisement (Dahl *et al.*, 2003). However, it can be viewed as just attention-grabbing and gimmicky. Sometimes, there is no relationship between the product and the advertisement, and this can cause a negative dissonance with the company's brand. The purpose of this chapter was to give a brief literature review on two academic areas of study: shock advertising and tourist behaviour. This first section looked at how shock advertisement can be employed as a management tool to control undesirable tourist behaviour. The nature of shock advertisement, characteristics, appeals, and its application were discussed. It helped our comprehension of the role and power of shock advertising as a marketing tactic that tourism organisations can employ. This can be an effective tool for DMs to maintain a positive image and attract tourists to their destination (Joost and Verlegh, 2002).

The second section of the literature review provided a detailed explanation of tourism, tourists' misbehaviour, and the history of tourism in Spain. The tourism industry is one context where advertising is an essential tool of communication. In recent times, there has been a global rise of tourism due to the rapid increase in global mobility, disposable income, and affordability of such services such as holiday packages or low-cost air travel. Competition from significant tourist players has enabled travellers to consider a vast horizon of destinations to explore (Konglim, 2011). Tourist behaviours have been studied and recorded; yet many researchers have concentrated on actions before arrival, like location choice (Karl *et al.*, 2015) or behaviours in destination, like eco-tourism and cross-national comparison of tourism (Loi and Pearce, 2012). The third part of the chapter pointed out the research gaps this study addresses.

Finally, this chapter discussed some alternative advertising and behavioural theories. The reviewed literature highlighted the different ways that congruity and incongruity can affect the audience who viewed the advertisements. The justification for using the schema incongruity model concerning the different incongruity levels in advertising and what happens when they are resolved or not was discussed.

The model allows the researcher to explore the way the DM can modify their communication to tourists and manage their expectation to have an enjoyable holiday. To a fair degree, tourist promotion and communication has moved away from images of happy families and showing lovely locations. There exists a fair competition in attracting tourists to a destination and managers are always continually looking for innovative ways to market their destination. The literature review demonstrated incongruity could enhance audience cognition and create awareness, action, and purchase intentions, though some studies have argued that not all audiences follow these steps. They can see behind the advertiser's gimmicks and have a boomerang effect, or if done with more intensity, they may ignore the message. Thus, the incongruity model can help us understand how the audience processes incongruity and which strategy may be best employed to produce a positive attitude toward the advertisement and favourable perceived destination image.

## **CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY**

### **3.0 Introduction**

In general, researchers, have a vital task of determining what paradigms and methods to use in conducting their work (Mukhopadhyay and Gupta, 2014). The use of an appropriate paradigm is essential, as it determines the conceptual frameworks and methods that will be adopted for data collection and analysis. Based on this, a mixed-method approach was adopted. This approach is known as the exploratory sequential mixed method and is characterised by a preliminary qualitative phase of data collection and analysis, followed by a phase of quantitative data collection and analysis, with a final phase of integrating data between the two phases (Creswell and Creswell, 2014). The mixed-method approach helps cater to the disadvantages of both techniques while harnessing their advantages. By combining both qualitative and quantitative research methods, this research will be able to highlight both the DMs' and tourists' viewpoints to aid in comprehension of the role of advertisers and that of the audience.

This chapter is divided into eight sections. Section 3.1 discusses the philosophy of this research and briefly deliberates on the paradigms that will be employed. Section 3.2 illustrates the paradigms of the research methods. Section 3.3 reviews the mixed methods approach, including its definition, features, strengths, and weaknesses. Section 3.4 reviews alternative research methods. Section 3.5 argues the justification for choosing mixed methods while comparing it with the alternative research methods considered but not chosen. Section 3.6 discusses the process of ethics and integrity adopted in this research. Finally, Section 3.7 summarises this chapter.

### **3.1 Research Philosophy**

Paradigms can be defined as a combined set of ontological and epistemological ideas that bring together a group of researchers and recommend certain procedures for carrying out research (Mukhopadhyay and Gupta, 2014). Paradigm is the concept behind differentiating one research philosophy from the other (Hathaway, 1995).

Creswell and Creswell (2014) defined ontology as the way the researcher sees reality, while epistemology is how the researcher knows what he knows; finally, the methodology is the processes and techniques used to discover the reality. Carson *et al.* (2001) argued an examination of the epistemology would help determine the choices made and decision process throughout the research design.

The adoption of the right paradigm in research is essential, as it determines the conceptual framework employed for gathering and reviewing data. There are fundamentally two types of researchers: positivist and interpretive (Carson *et al.*, 2001). As shown in Table 3.1, Creswell (2014) proposed the following four worldviews/paradigms in undertaking research and highlighted their characteristics:

**Table 3.1: Four Worldviews (Creswell and Creswell, 2014, p.3)**

<b>Postpositivism</b>	<b>Constructivism</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Determination</li> <li>• Reductionism</li> <li>• Empirical observation and measurement</li> <li>• Theory verification</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understanding</li> <li>• Multiple participant meanings</li> <li>• Social and historical construction</li> <li>• Theory generation</li> </ul>
<b>Transformative</b>	<b>Pragmatism</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Political</li> <li>• Power and justice-oriented</li> <li>• Collaborative</li> <li>• Change-oriented</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Consequences of actions</li> <li>• Problem-centred</li> <li>• Pluralistic</li> <li>• Real-world practice-oriented</li> </ul>

Mukhopadhyay and Gupta (2014) proposed two main paradigms commonly used as a post-positivist and interpretive approach in management and social sciences research. They also opined two other paradigms: structuralist (i.e., a method where researchers are focused on describing formal structures and the interrelationship between objects, concepts, or ideas) and critical (i.e., when questions and inquiries are raised about concepts, theories, and bases of knowledge to analyse the theoretical bases of knowledge and query previous claims). However, the post-positivist and interpretive approaches are the most used in qualitative and quantitative research.

The post-positivism worldview is known as the scientific method of doing research and objects the idea of complete information certainty (Creswell and Creswell, 2014). The post-positivist researcher aims to find and assess outcomes in experiments and uses their research questions to test variables that comprise hypotheses. They aim to analyse the numerical data that have been collected and separate themselves from respondents to ensure the objectivity of the research. Phillips and Burbules (2000) highlighted the following assumptions of post-positivism research:

- There is no absolute truth; hence, researchers do not need to prove a hypothesis.
- The research starts with a theory, which may subsequently be refined or abandoned for other approaches that are strongly correlated.

- The research is done by collecting data based on instruments that correspondents or observations have completed.
- Researchers form hypotheses and the relationships between variables.
- Objectiveness is an essential requirement as validity and reliability are important.

Mukhopadhyay and Gupta (2014) further highlighted the differences between the post-positivism and interpretivism research approaches below:

*Table 3.2: Differences Between Post-Positivist and Interpretivism Approaches (Mukhopadhyay and Gupta, 2014)*

	Post-positivist	Interpretive
<b>Ontology</b>	<b>Single reality</b>	<b>Reality can be multiple</b>
<b>Epistemology</b>	<b>Knower and unknown are independent</b>	<b>Knower and unknown are inseparable</b>
<b>Axiology</b>	<b>Inquiry is value-free</b>	<b>Inquiry is value-driven</b>
<b>Inductive/Deductive</b>	<b>Deductive</b>	<b>Inductive</b>
<b>Generalisation</b>	<b>Can be generalised</b>	<b>More focus on understanding than generalising</b>

In mixed-methods research, there are fundamentally two paradigms: the pragmatism approach and the transformative approach (Hall, 2013). The pragmatism approach helps to enhance communication between researchers with different paradigms and shed light on the practical ways the research methods can be mixed (Hoshmand, 2003). The main objective of any research should be to combine approaches in a way that will provide answers to the research questions (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The advantage of the pragmatism approach in research is that it can potentially reduce the effects associated with the use of a single method (Sechrest and Sidana, 1995). Nevertheless, like other philosophies, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) highlighted the pragmatist approach has its shortcomings:

- “More attention may be placed on applied research at the expense of basic research that produces more practical results.
- It may result in higher incremental change rather than fundamental change in the society.
- Practicality can be unclear except when the researcher has discussed it.
- Other researchers reject pragmatism, as it is known as the only route for getting past traditional, philosophical, and ethical disputes” (p. 19).

The pragmatist theorists generally link their chosen approach to the purpose of the research (Creswell and Creswell, 2014). According to Pansiri (2005), pragmatism has been praised for



forming the blocks of mixed-method research, as it can be structured to specific research to produce significant results. Pragmatism is encompassing as it combines both positivist and interpretive approaches and has been hailed as the bedrock of MMR (Teddle and Tashakkori, 2002).

Pragmatism is usually viewed as the logical partner for MMR and provides a combination of methods (Abolhasani, 2017). It ignores the significant divide that exists between the quantitative and qualitative methods and focuses on the research question. Some researchers have argued there is no need to be restricted to one way when carrying out qualitative research (Avis, 2003). The pragmatic approach is also best suited for collecting sequential data to understand the problem (Creswell and Creswell, 2013).

The pragmatism approach is often adopted in studying social reality based on beliefs and habits (Yefimov, 2003). Considering that this research tries to understand why some tourists exhibit deviant behaviours and habits that may generate problems for their hosts and other stakeholders, the pragmatism approach was adopted. In adopting this approach, this research will undertake an in-depth study of the given theory above and subsequently collect and analyse data that will either support or deny the idea behind this theory. In seeking to understand why shock advertising has not been applied to tourism to curtail deviant behaviour, this study utilised both qualitative and quantitative methods. A qualitative study was deemed appropriate to gather DMs perceptions since there is not a lot of research in this field.

This research will use the pragmatic paradigm and be guided toward solving the problems and issues surrounding the application of shock advertising and its usage and non-usage in the tourism industry. The exploratory sequential mixed method approach was used in this study as there was a need to obtain both advertiser and receiver perceptions on the use of this advertising strategy.

In pragmatist research, ontologically, the truth is seen as what works, and epistemologically, it is not confined to any specific paradigm. Here, knowledge “arises out of actions, situations, and consequences” (Creswell and Creswell, 2013, p. 13). The use of other methodological theories, such as grounded theory, can be productive in providing new insights to consumer and social behaviour (Creswell and Creswell, 2014). As such, by avoiding a particular methodology, we could focus more on answering the research questions without the restrictions of a theory.

### **3.2 Research Methods Paradigms**

Research methodology refers to a scientifically sound way to solve a research problem. It is an approach academics employ to find out the reality of their study. Various researchers have

employed numerous methods to comprehend the consequences of shock advertising tactics on buyers' behaviour, attitudes, and perception. According to the conventional definitions of research viewpoint, positivist researchers tend to employ quantitative methods and interpretive researchers generally use qualitative methods (Lee and Lings, 2008).

Creswell and Creswell (2014) proposed qualitative methods as “an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning that individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (p. 32). Gerrish and Lacey (2010) defined a quantitative method as “the broad term used to denote research designs and methods that yield numerical data” (p. 53). Although quantitative research is frequently employed in social sciences, there is some behavioural aspect that it cannot measure or objectively evaluate (Hobson, 2003).

Mixed methods research is the third research paradigm and acts as a middle point between quantitative and qualitative researchers (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2004). Saunders *et al.* (2003) argued academics might have the perception that one study method is 'better' than another. Carson *et al.* (2001) proposed a combination approach which joins the fundamentals of both methods. Saunders *et al.* (2003) identified it is commonly acceptable practise in business related studies to use a mixed method approach in analysing and interpreting data.

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) proposed eight steps in determining whether the mixed approach is right: “(1) determine the research question, (2) determine whether a mixed design is appropriate, (3) select the mixed method or mixed-model research design, (4) collect the data, (5) analyse the data, (6) interpret the data, (7) legitimise the data, and (8) draw conclusions (if warranted) and write the final report” (p. 21).

### 3.2.1 Qualitative Approach

This type of research focuses more on the context of words rather than numbers and tries to quantify figures in data analysis. The qualitative research method is often ideal as it occurs in the natural setting where subjects may be more willing to express themselves, interact freely, and provide a direct and in-depth perspective for reasoning (Rossman and Rallis, 1998).

A qualitative approach is also ideal in a situation where little or no research has been carried out on a subject area or setting, which makes it ideal for studying the use of shock advertisements in travel and tourism—a subject with scarce data (Yahia *et al.*, 2016). Qualitative research is also appropriate when trying to investigate a group or organisation where the interviewing technique is used. Qualitative researchers are more concerned with the richness and accuracy of data rather than reliability and validity (Borbasi and Jackson, 2012; Burns and Grove, 2009).

Qualitative data are subjective, while quantitative data may be lacking in providing the vital information needed to analyse the data. Qualitative data helps provide richness of the research as participants can express themselves fully, while quantitative data are quantifiable (Arora and Stoner, 2009).

Although qualitative research has the above advantages, it also has its limitations, including:

1. It does not distinguish between minor differences in data on a large scale.
2. It is not a statistically representative form of data collection, as smaller samples are typically used.
3. Researcher subjectivity is a main concern against collecting data qualitatively, as it relies on the experience of the researcher (Borradaile, 2012).

There are various methods of qualitative data collection that could be employed in research, such as focus groups, interviews, and observations. Interviews are one of the frequently used methods of collecting data qualitatively, as they allow participants to express themselves in their own words and provide a subjective understanding of their viewpoints (Parry *et al.*, 2013). Interviews are recognised as a collaboration between the researcher and respondents on knowledge and interpretation of data and these inputs are primarily dependent on the relationship built between them (Fryers *et al.*, 2011).

There are various means of conducting interviews, ranging from one-on-one, group, telephone, focus group, and brainstorming interviews. These interviews can be structured, semi-structured, or unstructured (Jirojwong *et al.*, 2014). The main aim of interviews is to generate depth rather than breadth and ensure both the researcher and the interviewee are free and able to express themselves throughout the process (Borradaile, 2012).

#### *3.2.1.1 Structured Interviews*

Structured interviews are interviews that are standardised (i.e., all respondents are asked the same questions and the same guidelines are followed in a predetermined order). It is rigid and allows the researcher to have control over the interview format. The primary aim is to receive specific answers to a fixed range of questions that are easy to analyse, code, and generate themes (Bryman, 2008). They can be used for many respondents, especially when a short answer is required; yet it may sometimes feel like a job interview. The drawback of this style of interviewing is that if the participants are unclear about a question, they are unable to probe further. Hence, an incorrect response or no response at all may be recorded (David and Sutton, 2004).

### 3.2.1.2 Unstructured Interviews

Unstructured interviews, as the name implies, connote a flexible and nondirected interview technique, where the interviewee can guide the discussion. Here, respondents can freely speak and express themselves. No restrictions are placed on the pattern of questions asked or on the flow of the discussion. This method is very beneficial in a new subject area where little or no knowledge is available about the research topic (Bryman, 2008). Question styles are usually few and open-ended to prompt participants to tell their story or share their viewpoint (Creswell and Creswell, 2014). The major drawback of this technique is its lengthiness and difficulty in analysing. Even so, it can highlight concepts and themes the researcher would not have considered.

### 3.2.1.3 Semi- Structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews involve a combination of the structured and the unstructured style, thereby harnessing the advantages of both strategies while limiting the disadvantages. It is used to understand people's behaviour by assigning themes to it and makes for a broader inquiry field (Denzin, 1997). It is close to reality as its changes and allows for an inductive approach, which this research follows (Jebreen, 2012).

## 3.2.2 Quantitative Approach

Quantitative research, otherwise known as statistical analysis, uses scientific methods to quantify data. It can employ different means of data collection and is mostly used when a large population is required to test the hypotheses. The most used approach in quantitative analysis is a survey method, which could be in the form of telephone, online, or face to face.

Data can be collected quantitatively using several tools such as surveys, questionnaires, structured observations, and experimental design. Questionnaires are a popular means of data collection, as they allow participants to express themselves. With the internet becoming a global phenomenon, electronic questionnaires can be sent to respondents, making it easier to reach a wider audience effectively (Jackson and Furnham, 2000). Table 3.3 below highlights the strengths and weakness of quantitative research:

**Table 3.3: Strengths and Weaknesses of Quantitative Research (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004)**

Strengths	Weaknesses
Testing and validating already constructed theories about how (and to a lesser degree, why) phenomena occur.	The researcher's categories that are used may not reflect local constituencies' understandings.

Testing hypotheses that are constructed before the data are collected. Can generalise research findings when the data are based on a random sample of adequate size.	The researcher's theories that are used may not reflect local constituencies' understandings.
Can generalise a research finding when it has been replicated in many different populations and subpopulations.	The researcher may miss out on phenomena occurring because of the focus on theory or hypothesis testing rather than on theory or hypothesis generation (called the confirmation bias).
Useful for obtaining data that allow quantitative predictions to be made.	The knowledge produced may be too abstract and general for direct application to specific local situations, contexts, and individuals.
The researcher may construct a situation that eliminates the confounding influence of many variables, allowing one to assess cause-and-effect relationships more credibly.	
Data collection using some quantitative methods is relatively quick (e.g., telephone interviews).	
Provides precise, quantitative, numerical data.	
Data analysis is relatively less time consuming (using statistical software).	
The research results are relatively independent of the researcher (e.g., effect size, statistical significance).	
It may have higher credibility with many people in power (e.g., administrators, politicians, people who fund programs).	
It is useful for studying large numbers of people	

An online questionnaire was employed in this research because of the following reasons:

- It offers fast access to real-time data since it is collected on the web and can be made available as soon as it is completed.
- It has a high rate of completion and accuracy since the software will prompt respondents and highlight missing answers.
- It is cost effective, as it is cheaper than sending by post or administering in person.
- It can reach a wider scope of the global population.

Despite the advantages of using web-based questionnaires, some problems may arise. For instance, the researcher may lose data collected due to an inability to hold the respondents accountable. Also, the accuracy of responses may be compromised if respondents are distracted while completing the survey. Nonetheless, controls and checks can be put in place to combat many of these problems.

### **3.3 Mixed Method Research (MMR)**

MMR can be defined “as the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study” (Johnson and Onwuegbuzi, 2004, p. 17). It is also referred to as the application of two or more methods in one research that combines both qualitative and quantitative data set (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

Traditionally, this approach has been employed in research, “although its uses and application have been debated at times” (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003, p. 241). It has been applied with success across various aspects of tourism, such as tourist behaviour (Polo Pena *et al.*, 2012), hospitality (Mihalic, 2012), sustainable tourism (Jackie Ong *et al.*, 2014), tourism marketing (Tsai, Huang, and Lin, 2005) and DMOs (Kasim, 2009). Although there has been a substantial rise in the number researchers using the MMR approach (Mabila, 2017), there is still insufficient research on MMR in terms of mixing and combining procedures, data analysis, design, and validity strategies (Johnson and Onwuegbuzi, 2004).

According to Cameron (2011), MMR has its “own philosophy, theoretical, methodological, analytical, as well as practical foundations and constructs” (p. 96). Creswell and Creswell (2013) proposed MMR is usually pragmatic in approach, thereby allowing it to combine multiple methods in responding to research questions and fulfilling its objectives.

An MMR approach offered the researcher the opportunity to resolve problems “using both numbers and words” and a combination of “inductive and deductive thinking” (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007, pp. 9–10). According to Maxcy (2003), “it is perfectly logical for researchers to select and use different methods as they see the need, applying their findings to a reality that is at once plural and unknown” (p. 59).

#### **3.3.1 Advantages and Limitations of Using MMR**

One of the main advantages of the MMR approach is it allows the researcher to choose which method to use for data collection. It is also suitable for sustainability studies in terms of research, as it allows for teamwork, reflection, and the progression of an idea. Also, because

of its exploratory nature, it is commonly used in social sciences, such as tourism research (McGehee *et al.*, 2013). It also harnesses the benefits of both the qualitative and quantitative methods, while reducing their limitations. Nonetheless, researchers have argued methods should be chosen because the strengths of the techniques complement each other rather than catering to the weaknesses of the techniques (Johnson and Turner, 2003).

The MMR approach has the “potential to solve issues by employing both numbers and words and thinking inductively and deductively” (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007, pp. 9–10). Greene *et al.* (1989) proposed the following four benefits of the MMR approach: complementarity (i.e., helping to develop and present findings), illustration (i.e., demonstrating and showing the results with the findings of another method), development (i.e., using the result from one mode to inform the other), and expansion (i.e., extending the width of findings by utilising both approaches).

Despite all the benefits of MMR, it has some disadvantages, including it could increase the cost to the researcher and be time consuming. Also, because researchers are more inclined to use one type of method in their research, they could be lacking in the ability to analyse the data (Bryman, 2008). It may be preferable to use a team of researchers while using an MMR approach (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Additionally, issues may arise if there are contradictions in the findings.

Other challenges that may be encountered include the issue of how research paradigms should be mixed (Khoo-Lattimore *et al.*, 2017). While some researchers have argued more than one model can be used (Greene and Hall, 2010), others believe varying paradigmatic principles could result in contradicting opinions of reasoning (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Table 3.4 below shows some of the advantages and limitations of an MMR approach.

*Table 3.4: Advantages and Disadvantages of Mixed Methods Research (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p.17)*

<b>Advantages</b>	<b>Disadvantages</b>
<b>Words, pictures, and narrative can be used to add meaning to numbers</b>	<b>Can be difficult for a single researcher to carry out both qualitative and quantitative research, especially if two or more approaches are expected to be used concurrently; it may require a research team.</b>
<b>Numbers can be used to add precision to words, pictures, and narrative.</b>	<b>The researcher must learn about multiple methods and approaches and understand how to mix them appropriately.</b>
<b>Can provide quantitative and qualitative research strengths</b>	<b>Methodological purists contend that one should always work within either a qualitative or a quantitative paradigm.</b>

<b>The researcher can generate and test a grounded theory</b>	<b>More expensive.</b>
<b>Can answer a broader and more complete range of research questions because the researcher is not confined to a single method or approach</b>	<b>More time-consuming.</b>
<b>A researcher can use the strengths of an additional method to overcome the weaknesses in another method by using both in a research study</b>	<b>Some of the details of mixed research remain to be worked out entirely by research methodologists (e.g., problems of paradigm mixing, how to qualitatively analyse quantitative data, how to interpret conflicting results).</b>
<b>Can provide stronger evidence for a conclusion through convergence and corroboration of findings.</b>	
<b>Can add insights and understanding that might be missed when only a single method is used.</b>	
<b>Can be used to increase the generalisability of the results.</b>	
<b>Qualitative and quantitative research used together produces complete knowledge necessary to inform theory and practice.</b>	

Venkatesh *et al.* (2013) listed seven aims of MMR, including complementarity (i.e., aim is to gain balancing views about the same experience or relationship), completeness (i.e., helps paint a full picture of the phenomenon), developmental (i.e., in this case, interpretations made from one method leads to the other; sequential methods arise from here), expansion (i.e., can to be used to understand previous strands of research), corroboration/confirmation (i.e., evaluate the trustworthiness of corollaries attained from one approach), compensation (i.e., it helps balance the shortcoming of one method with employing the other), and diversity (i.e., used to gather variant opinions of a subject matter).

This research falls under the developmental and completeness purpose, as it aims to collect both views of DMs and tourists for a complete picture using a sequential method.

Creswell (2012) proposed the following six types of mixed method designs:

- Convergent parallel - Concurrently gather, amalgamate, and employ both quantitative and qualitative data.
- Explanatory sequential - Collecting quantitative data initially and subsequently gathering qualitative data to augment the initial findings from the quantitative research.



- Exploratory sequential - When qualitative data are collected first to examine a phenomenon and then gathering quantitative data to help understand the initial findings.
- Embedded - When a researcher collects both sets of data at the same time; in this situation, one finding supports the other.
- Transformative - In this situation, any of the above designs can be employed as the research evolves.
- Multiphase - This is designed to scrutinise a problem through a variety of research.

Morgan (1998) proposed researchers should decide if there is a necessity for a “precedence choice” and “sequence choice” when employing a mixed methods design (p.366). However, many elements influence the priority choice, including the goal, objectives, questions of the research and background, and resources available to the researcher (Creswell, 2009). In this study, the precedence choice was given to the qualitative phase as there is hardly any research on the use of shock tactics in the tourism industry. Hence, results from the qualitative phase will guide the quantitative phase.

The sequential decision usually relates to the order in which “both sets of data are employed and the timing of collection” (Morgan, 1998, p. 366). Although exploration in this research is key, as it is part and parcel of sequential activities. Hence, in this research, an exploratory sequential approach was selected as a procedure whereby qualitative study acts as a foundation that underpins the quantitative research (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2017). The justification for this design was that the quantitative data would provide a comprehensive understanding of tourists’ perceptions of shock advertising.

Exploratory sequential mixed methods are useful in understanding the makeup of multiculturally sensitive and comprehensive learning settings (Kumar *et al.*, 2019). This fits the situation of this study which aims to examine strategies that can be used in managing tourists’ misconduct, which is quite prevalent. Using the exploratory sequential mixed-methods research design was necessary for combining and employing the data from the semi-structured interviews with DMs for creating the survey in the quantitative phase (Fetters *et al.*, 2013). This enabled us to integrate findings from both the semi-structured interviews and questionnaires that provided a forum for DMs to air their views and get tourists’ perspectives on the use of shock tactics as a management tool. However, researchers who elect to carry

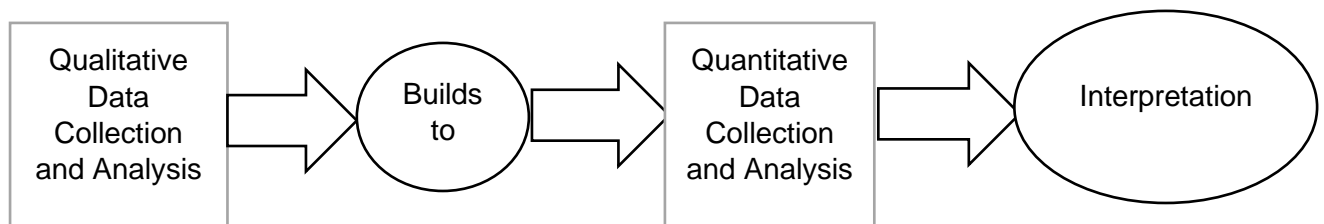
out a mixed method exploratory sequential study need to take methodological problems into consideration.

To conclude, the robustness of this exploratory sequential mixed method design was because the qualitative research provided a window of opportunity to consider the DMs' opinions on some of the key areas that they would want to access when airing shock advertisements.

### 3.4 Exploratory Research Approach

Vogt (1999) defined "exploration in social science as a wide range, goal-oriented, methodical, planned tasks, aimed at making the most of unearthing of generalisation resulting in the explanation and comprehension of a topic or social event" (p. 105). As previously stated, it is believed that a blend of both quantitative and qualitative methods does provide a better view of the research questions or issues relative to employing just one technique (Creswell, 2012). However, in most cases, the purpose for carrying out the research will determine the procedure of the study.

Figure 3.1: *Exploratory Sequential Design Flow (Subedi, 2016)*



Mason *et al.* (2010) stated exploratory research in business management is on the rise, especially in situations that involve an existing social problem in a new context. This type of research enables thinking about possible explanations for certain behaviours and attitudes because we understand what causes them. It is particularly useful in exploring new initiatives (Hanson *et al.*, 2005).

### 3.5 Alternative Research Methodologies

#### 3.5.1 Focus Groups

This research method is mostly used in qualitative research and involves interviewing a group of individuals rather than only one. The main aim of focus groups is the interaction between the group members and how it helps in obtaining information. This type of interview style is usually semi-structured. It allows for discerning live deliberations on the topic (Coolican, 2004). This method can be used for discussing new ideas and finding out what the respondents think

of the issue and what their thought process is. According to Parry *et al.* (2013), using this method is useful for interactive communication and bringing group customs, diverse cultural opinions, and social values to the forefront.

However, drawbacks of using this method are that the interview can lose direction, such that the interviewees can take control and lead the discussion in other deviant directions. This method was deemed inappropriate because of the vast geographical area in which respondents were based. Also, because of the cultural differences of respondents, some discussed were too sensitive to be deliberated in a group. Finally, since the research aim was to gather DMs' perceptions of and understanding on the use of shock advertising, a group discussion would not have been inadequate. The table below details some of the benefits and drawbacks of using the focus group method.

**Table 3.5: Advantages and Disadvantages of Focus Group (Then *et al.*, 2014,p.17)**

<b>Advantages</b>	<b>Disadvantages</b>
<b>Opportunity to have direct intensive contact with individuals</b>	<b>some groups may be lethargic and dull</b>
<b>Ability to collect rich, in-depth data</b>	<b>stressful or sensitive issues may limit group disclosure</b>
<b>The ability of the moderator to encourage interaction with other participants</b>	<b>reluctance to express their opinions if other group members are not trusted</b>
<b>Allows individuals to give opinions or change opinions following discussion with other participants</b>	<b>Dominant or aggressive individuals may influence the group dynamics</b>
<b>Relaxed group setting</b>	<b>lack of control may lead to discussion of irrelevant issues</b>
<b>Individual opinions valued</b>	<b>Poor organisation can waste valuable time and energy</b>
<b>Does not discriminate against people who cannot read or write</b>	<b>The difficulty of assembly due to location and time constraints</b>
<b>Individuals feel listened to</b>	<b>Data is also more challenging to analyse than individual interviews.</b>
<b>Less intense environment</b>	<b>Comments from the group must be interpreted within the social and environmental context in which they were given.</b>
<b>Dynamic process</b>	
<b>The group promotes security and a “safe” environment</b>	
<b>Discussion is more spontaneous and honest</b>	
<b>Group dynamics and peer influences can be observed during the discussion</b>	
<b>Behaviours and beliefs can be validated and clarified during the discussion</b>	

Relatively cost-effective	
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### 3.5.2 Case Study

Creswell (2003) defined a case study as when a “researcher explores in depth, a program, an event, an activity, a process, or one or more individuals” (p. 15). It can also be “defined as a research approach that focuses on one phenomenon, variable or set of variables, thing, or case occurring in a defined or bounded context of time and place, to gain an understanding of the whole of the phenomenon under investigation” (Cope, 2015, p. 681).

The main objective in using the case study method is to pursue the knowledge of the “how” or “why” a phenomenon works, while other qualitative methods are interested in finding out the “what” of an event (Polit and Beck, 2012). This research is not concerned with knowing the “how” or “why” of shock advertising techniques but rather “what” DMs think about employing this strategy. What is their understanding of shock advertising? What are tourists’ perceptions of the use of shock advertising?

Case studies are extensive and use various bases of information which could either be qualitative or quantitative. A single case could be used or various instances depending on the circumstances. Numerous cases can be used to examine matching components of the research questions (Yin, 2012). Case study methods can help illuminate, expand, and impassion the investigator in their research (Hyde *et al.*, 2012). Nevertheless, case studies have their limitations, as they are sometimes criticised for lack of generalisation and thorough scientific research.

*Table 3.6: Disadvantages of Case Study (Crowe et al., 2011,p.7)*

<b>Disadvantages</b>
<b>Selecting/conceptualising the wrong case(s) resulting in lack of theoretical generalisations</b>
<b>Collecting large volumes of data that are not relevant to the case or too little to be of any value</b>
<b>Defining/bounding the case</b>
<b>Lack of rigour</b>
<b>Ethical issues</b>
<b>Integration with the theoretical framework</b>

### 3.5.3 Grounded Theory

Creswell (2003) defined grounded theory as the “researcher attempt to derive a general, abstract theory of a process, action, or interaction grounded in the views of participants in a

study” (p. 14). The grounded theory method usually starts with facts that have been collected and subsequently developed into a theory. The data can be obtained from numerous sources, such as interviews, observations, and surveys. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2001), grounded theory should be done in five steps, which are “describing the research question, literature review, describing the methodology, data analysis explaining the theory, and discussing the implications” (p. 14). In this setting, rather than using a predetermined theory or idea to test hypotheses, the researcher collects the data and develops the method. Developing an approach is an essential part of this research (Gratton and Jones, 2004).

One of the advantages of applying this investigation method is that it permits the scholar to put together data from observations and personal experiences. However, it has numerous limitations. For instance, it can take a lengthy period, it is difficult to manage because of the lengthy process of data collection, and it is costly as a student researcher. This method was found unsuitable as the researcher would have needed to collect data by observing respondents for a significant amount of time, increasing the cost and risks to the researcher as locations are widely dispersed.

*Table 3.7: Advantages and Disadvantages of Grounded Theory (Hussein et al., 2014)*

<b>Advantages</b>	<b>Disadvantages</b>
<b>Accommodates for inherent appeal</b>	<b>In-depth process which could become lengthy</b>
<b>Nurtures originality</b>	<b>It allows room for methodological mistakes</b>
<b>Possibility to theorise</b>	<b>Assumptions are not inferred from the literature.</b>
<b>Logical tactic to data analysis</b>	<b>Various methods can be used, causing confusion</b>
<b>Caters for data expanse and robustness</b>	<b>Partial generalisability</b>

### 3.5.4 Ethnography Research Methodology

This research method entails a thorough study of a group (such as a cultural group) through engagement over a significantly lengthy period using various means of data collection. In utilising the ethnography research method, researchers aim to understand the behaviour and culture of the group through their own experiences. In undertaking an ethnography research, a researcher must be able to gain access to the site or location, build a bond with the respondents, and interact and mingle with the group to identify critical informants (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001). In this methodology, most data are collected through observations and unstructured interviews.

This method was considered unsuitable for this research due to the lengthy time the researcher would need to spend with the DMs in their various locations and the cost implications. Finally, observing either DMs or tourists would be a useful research method

involving spending a long time with the tourists and managers—this would be both unsafe and inappropriate.

### **3.6 Justification for Using the MMR Approach**

The use of semi-structured interviews was deemed more suitable for this research instead of focus groups because of the difficulties involved in aggregating respondents in one location due to long distance between the destinations, time conflicts, and language conflicts with DMs (Then *et al.*, 2014).

The MMR was also preferred instead of the case study methodology as this approach is often critiqued for its inability to generalise empirical results (Case and Light, 2011). This was mainly because a single case is used, and the findings may not be applicable to other locations or scenarios. However, the findings from single or various cases can be used to enhance knowledge, particularly in the situation of new creativities or inventions when there is hardly any research or where a phenomenon is not widely spread.

In comparing the MMR to grounded theory, one of the main purposes of the latter is to generate a theory with the data collected. However, this was not the objective of this research, which was to investigate the use of shock tactics in tourism and understand DMs' perceptions and tourists' reactions to the emotional advertising tactics. Theoretical sampling is required in using the ground theory methodology. However, purposive sampling was essential in this research to include a specific demographic of locations and tourists, otherwise the research would have been too vast (Hussein *et al.*, 2014).

Additionally, the other methodologies considered instead of the MMR were unsuitable due to the difficulty that would arise from getting repeated access to DMs' offices. This deeply concerned the DMs, as it would require them to sacrifice valuable time in their schedules for interviews.

The MMR approach was chosen for this research as neither the quantitative or qualitative methods could adequately answer the research questions (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2002). One question asked was, why have you not applied shock advertising? Thus, a qualitative method was chosen to allow DMs to express themselves and keep structure while maintaining the objectives of the research.

We adopted the qualitative approach in some parts of the study, as some of the issues discussed were sensitive, and the managers needed to be able to express themselves freely. For the quantitative element, since we needed a diverse number of tourists to generalise study findings, a survey was the best option (Creswell and Creswell, 2014). The views of both the

advertisers and tourists were essential in understanding the implication of using such a strategy in managing tourists' misconduct. Thus, the combination of both methods would provide a better model.

The MMR approach can also help establish checks and balances necessary for understanding attitude and behaviour. In understanding the reason tourists misbehave while on holidays and their attitudes toward shock advertising, the MMR approach was deemed best for examining the use of shock tactics as a management tool. Another reason for using the MMR approach is that it can persistently enhance social change (Molina-Azorín and Font, 2016). Many studies intending to cause a positive societal change employed an MMR approach, such as critical realist (Downward and Mearman, 2004), feminism (Heimtun and Morgan, 2012), and pragmatism (Pansiri, 2006). Since this study aims to promote a change in tourists' behaviour, it was favoured above the other methods.

An essential reason for adopting the MMR approach was that it could easily be adapted for different audiences, and this study had a broad destination reach in terms of DMs and communication is vital (Molina-Azorín and Font, 2016). Finally, Maxcy (2003) proposed "it is perfectly logical for researchers to select and use different methods as they see the need, applying their findings to a reality that is at once plural and unknown" (p. 59). The use of shock advertisements in the tourism industry is relatively unknown; hence, the MMR method was deemed appropriate.

### **3.7 Ethics and Integrity**

This section will briefly discuss the factors considered in ensuring data collection was done ethically and professionally.

#### **3.7.1 Ethics in Research**

In the past years, concerns have been raised over the steep decline in observing ethics and integrity in academic research (Hyytinen and Löfström, 2017). Jordan (2013) defined research ethics as the "standards of moral behaviour, intended to guide all individuals employed as professionals in, or working as staff or students with various capacities associated with the production or dissemination of systematic, generalisable knowledge" (p. 252). Integrity in research deals with honesty and ethical practices when engaged in inquiries (Guillemin and Gillam, 2004).

According to Hyytinen and Löfström (2017), "integrity, honesty, and respect were seen as starting points for responsible research" (p. 31). A researcher should use methods and techniques that can provide reliable results (Anderson *et al.*, 2007). Different individuals

recognise there are some standard ethical norms that guide research, but this can be translated in different lights, depending on culture, lifestyle, and values (Masic, 2014). A researcher must always be ethically guided. Christians (2000) proposed when conducting research, a researcher must consider the privacy and confidentiality of respondents' data, obtain their consent, and avoid any deception in the accuracy of data collected.

The succeeding sections will investigate and detail the main components of undertaking ethical research.

### 3.7.2 Privacy and Confidentiality

Ability to maintain privacy and confidentiality in any research can be challenging, particularly for qualitative research where a detailed description is necessary to analyse findings (Houghton *et al.*, 2010). Confidentiality issues do not only relate to the respondents but also to the site or organisation where the interview is conducted. Gibson *et al.* (2012) proposed the components and values of confidentiality are autonomy, privacy, and keeping a commitment. Anonymity is a means of protecting an individual's confidential information. Ensuring a comfortable environment can ensure participants' privacy and confidentiality and researchers during interviews are protected (Petrova *et al.*, 2014).

Confidentiality and privacy can be maintained in the following ways:

1. Using pseudonyms to describe key feature of respondents that could otherwise expose their identity (Polit and Beck, 2009).
2. Member checking can be employed. This entails participants reviewing their transcripts to ensure they have been recorded accurately (Petrova *et al.*, 2014). Even so, if respondents choose to be more open with details, the researcher needs to discuss the viability with them.

There are also situations where complete autonomy cannot be guaranteed, such as the instance of a perceived risk of serious harm to the self (e.g., suicide; Gibson *et al.*, 2012).

### 3.7.3 Informed Consent

Informed consent should give research respondents vital information about the research to enable them to decide whether to take part in it. It should always also inform them of their ability to withdraw from the research at any time and guarantee the protection of their confidentiality and privacy (Petrova *et al.*, 2014). A researcher must be well-versed in relevant laws and regulations before drafting the informed consent.



Usually, informed consent is obtained before the start of data collection. However, in the case of qualitative research, consent cannot be provided prior to the research as the researcher does not know the path the interview or observation could take and may need to adjust the consent as the research progresses. This may lead to some issues (Houghton *et al.*, 2010).

The ethical process should continue throughout the research process as the need arises. This is because failure to re-examine the operation of data collection may lead to lack of trust and confidence in the process (Petrova *et al.*, 2014).

#### 3.7.4 Accuracy of Data Collected

It is necessary to ensure accuracy of data collected in research, as fabrication or falsification of data is unethical (Masic, 2014). The omission, inclusion, or exclusion of modified data can lead to inaccuracy of data. Recording participant information can be beneficial as the raw data can always be referred to if the respondent disagrees with the data analysis or results at any time. The researcher can also challenge his or her interpretation by referring to the recorded data. Also, it can be useful for reflective analysis (Petrova *et al.*, 2014).

#### 3.7.5 Risk of Harm

Often, it is difficult to predict the harm that research could pose for respondents. However, a researcher is obligated to anticipate the possibility of any potential harms or benefits that may arise and have a course of action in the event of such circumstances (Orb *et al.*, 2001). Masic (2014) opined that risk to participants might arise from “1) poor study design, 2) lack of adequate supervision of research, 3) ignoring side effects that may arise in participants, and 4) not following protocol and guidelines of research” (p. 3).

In qualitative research, the researcher should be ready to intervene if any unforeseen circumstances arise during an interview. Such circumstances may include participants becoming distressed or needing counselling (Houghton *et al.*, 2010). The researcher must be prepared to take the necessary steps to minimise any harm or associated risks to the participants at every point.

#### 3.7.6 Deception

The issue of deception is a primary concern and a subject of interest for researchers and academics alike. Deception is said to have happened when an individual communicates in a way that can result in falsehood and misbelief (Wilson, 2015). Most rules and regulations regarding deception often focus on the researcher and organisation; yet deception can also occur with participants (Resnik and McCann, 2015). For instance, participants may take part

in research only for the monetary benefits or exaggerate information they provide to the researcher to qualify.

Deception can be morally acceptable in research depending on the context, such as when a participant is given a storyline in which he or she does not have a preconceived idea of the study. Wilson (2015) reported researchers must differentiate between counterfactual defeating deception and counterfactual compatible deception. Counterfactual deception occurs when a researcher knowingly deceives a participant (e.g., following him or her home without permission to observe them). In counterfactual deception, the researcher eventually opens up to the participant as to why the truth was not told in the first instance.

### 3.7.7 Ethical Considerations for This Research

This research was conducted following the protocol and guidelines of the Business and Management Research Institute and aimed to maintain the strict ethical conduct by adopting the following:

1. Respondents signed a consent form giving their approval before taking part and were informed of the aims and objectives of the research.
2. Data collection methods were unbiased, and respondents were not prompted in the way the questionnaire was designed.
3. Only the respondents' ads viewed the ads and did not filter them to unintended parties.
4. The respondents signed a confidentiality form, wherein the emails and online questionnaires were sent to intended parties only.
5. Confidential information was stored securely by using password-protected university laptop and devices.
6. Respondents were informed in advance of any interview date and time by email to ensure the interview did not last too long and cause unnecessary stress.
7. Respondents were given codes (e.g., RS1) so that their personal information was not disclosed.
8. The advertisements were fictitious brands, so no misconception of the products will arise.
9. Another consideration was the reliability and validity of the data collected. The reliability and validity measurement items are reviewed in Chapter 6.
10. The university and all relevant organisations granted ethical approval to ensure professionalism and confidentiality.

11. Supervisors were kept informed of interview appointments and interviews were conducted in a safe environment (i.e., the respondent's office).

### **3.8 Conclusion**

Research methods are tools used to initiate social science research. Using the right techniques is essential to arrive at a valid, reliable, and generalizable result. This chapter has demonstrated the research methodology used to direct this study. It has also justified why the researcher chose the mixed methods research approach. Other potential research methods were analysed and a broad background into other available options were reviewed. The research methodology, methods of data collection, and ethics in research were explained. The next chapter will discuss qualitative findings and interpretation.

## CHAPTER 4: QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

### 4.0 Chapter Overview

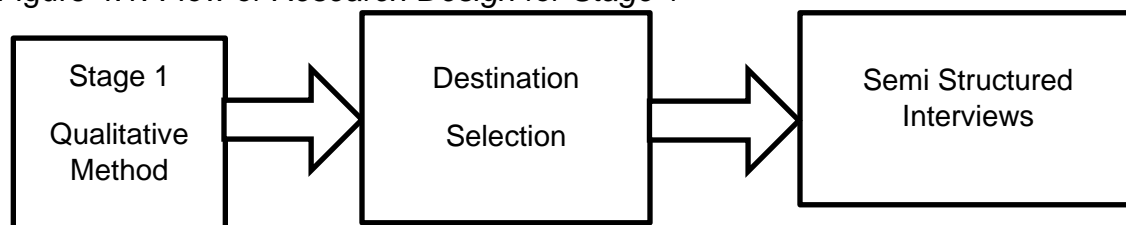
The previous chapter gave a comprehensive analysis of the approaches and methods been employed in this study. This chapter presented the analysis and findings of the semi-structured interviews with 26 DMs from the public and private sectors. The main purpose of this research was to investigate the understanding of DMs in the use of shock advertising and its effect on tourists' attitudes and misconduct.

This chapter aimed to explore DMs' understanding, use, and reaction to shock advertising. In this chapter, the qualitative data collection was illustrated. Section 4.1 described the research design, objectives, and methods for the qualitative study. Section 4.2. reviewed the sampling techniques used and discusses how the DMs were chosen. Section 4.3 detailed how data were collected, provided justification on why semi-structured interviews were used, listed questions for the DMs, and described the overall interview procedure. Section 4.4 detailed data analysis and described the thematic analysis process and implementation. Section 4.5 reviewed the preliminary results and discussions. Section 4.6 concluded this chapter.

### 4.1 Research Design

This study's research design has a consistent approach that analysed DMs' and tourists' viewpoints on the effect of shock advertisement on the receiver. The study adopted a mixed-method research design and used an exploratory sequential approach, as it comprised two phases. The first phase was qualitative, and the second phase was quantitative (Creswell and Creswell, 2014). In other words, the first phase involved collecting qualitative data using semi-structured interviews, and the second phase involved collecting quantitative data using questionnaires. An analysis of the qualitative data collected from the questionnaires was undertaken in the second phase. However, this chapter only addressed the first phase of the adopted research design. Figure 4.1 below gives a breakdown of the first phase of the research.

Figure 4.1: *Flow of Research Design for Stage 1*



The purpose of this research was to examine two main questions:

1. How did DMs currently understand and employ shock advertising?
2. What was the perception (and potential reactions) of tourists to shock advertisements in the context of the travel and tourism industry?

## **4.2 Sampling**

The research process of identifying and accessing respondents for a study is significant in the conduct of ethical research. As such, good knowledge of the appropriate methods to adopt in this process is vital to ensure the credibility and reliability of the data collected (Lloyd and Hopkins, 2014). The method employed would depend largely on the type and aim of the research. Marshall (1996) proposed three broad methods of sample collection for a qualitative study:

1. Convenient Sampling: Otherwise known as “haphazard or accidental sampling,” it is a nonprobability technique where participants are required to meet predetermined selection criteria, such as demographic and geographical criteria, accessibility and availability of the respondents, and readiness to participate (Dörnyei, 2007).
2. Theoretical Sample: This sampling method requires formulating interpretative theories from developing data and subsequently choosing a new set of respondents to further investigate and expatiate on the theory. It is commonly used in grounded theory research; however, it can be applied in qualitative studies that necessitate clarification (Marshall, 1996).
3. Purposive Sampling: This sampling technique, also known as judgmental sampling, assesses the views of respondents over certain attributes, skills, and knowledge they possess in the research (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). It is a non-random method that does not require any theories and is commonly used where the sample characteristics are readily available to the researcher and fit the purpose of the study. It is routinely employed in qualitative research where the goal is to gather quality data and make the most of accessible resources (Patton, 2002).

Creswell and Creswell (2014) stated the practice of sampling technique is typically used because researchers ought to employ easy and naturally formed groups in exploratory research. In

describing purposive sampling, Creswell and Creswell (2014) stated “open-ended data, analysis of text or pictures, representation of information in figures and tables, and personal interpretation of the findings all inform qualitative methods” (p. 23). In qualitative research, the sample size is normally small and chosen utilizing a goal-directed technique to make certain the data gathered is “information-rich” (Borbasi and Jackson 2012, p. 135). Purposive sampling also allows the researcher to choose a population sample with diverse characteristics and cultural backgrounds (Parry *et al.*, 2013).

Purposive sampling was deemed suitable for this study because it allowed for comparability while separating cultural differences (Parry *et al.*, 2013). Also, a purposive sampling technique was adopted because other researchers who have conducted similar studies have used it (Jebreen, 2012; Parry *et al.*, 2013; Yahia *et al.*, 2016; see Appendix I). The DMs were also selected from travel destinations with the most cases of tourist misconduct and have a knowledge of shock advertisements. The selected DMs and the criteria for their selection are highlighted in Table 4.1 below:

**Table 4.1: Destination Selection Criteria**

<b>Criteria</b>	<b>Explanation</b>	<b>Justification</b>
<b>Tourists destinations</b>	<b>Destinations which are popular with holiday tourists to ensure sufficient respondents and DMs.</b>	<b>Countries that rely on tourism in one form or the other have been under immense pressure to develop a modern management approach that will combine all the development achieved, sustain them, and continually produce positive effects for the local tourists' destinations (Durašević, 2015).</b>
<b>Exposure to shock advertisement</b>	<b>Destinations where both public and private players frequently use shock advertisements.</b>	<b>Dahl <i>et al.</i> (2003) found that shock appeals enhance memory and helps in developing behaviour. Although, Machová <i>et al.</i> (2015) proposed that while shock advertisement creates awareness in the present, its long-time effectiveness is unknown.</b>
<b>Undesirable tourist behaviours</b>	<b>Destinations with incidents of reported unwanted and annoying tourist behaviours.</b>	<b>This study plans to understand problematic tourist behaviours as perceived by both tourists and DMs. Shock advertising can be used to solve sore social issues, and change behaviour (Banyte <i>et al.</i>, 2014).</b>

The sample size for the study was 26 DM respondents in the tourism industry from non-profit organisations ( $N = 21$ ) and for-profit organisations ( $N = 5$ ). Table 4.2 details the sample feature.

**Table 4.2: Description of Participant Profiles**

<b>Resp .</b>	<b>Organisation</b>	<b>Job Title</b>	<b>Destination</b>	<b>Years of Experience</b>
<b>R1</b>	<b>Confidentiality requested</b>	<b>Destination Event Manager</b>	<b>Australia</b>	<b>4-6</b>
<b>R2</b>	<b>Blue square consultants in Thai Tourism Authority West Region</b>	<b>Destination Consultant</b>	<b>Thailand</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>R3</b>	<b>Confidentiality requested</b>	<b>Development Director</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>5-10</b>
<b>R4</b>	<b>Tour My India</b>	<b>Senior Tour Manager</b>	<b>India</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>R5</b>	<b>Tourism New Zealand</b>	<b>Regional Manager</b>	<b>New Zealand</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>R6</b>	<b>Ministry of Tourism</b>	<b>Tourist Information Officer</b>	<b>India</b>	<b>12 and above</b>
<b>R7</b>	<b>Japan National Tourism Organisation</b>	<b>Marketing &amp; Promotion Manager</b>	<b>Japan</b>	<b>4-6</b>
<b>R8</b>	<b>Denmark Tourism Incorporated</b>	<b>Tourism Manager</b>	<b>Denmark</b>	<b>10 and above</b>
<b>R9</b>	<b>New York State Tourism</b>	<b>Consultant, Sustainable Tourism</b>	<b>New York</b>	<b>5-10</b>
<b>R10</b>	<b>Israel Government Tourist Office</b>	<b>Tourism Manager</b>	<b>Israel</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>R11</b>	<b>Laos-PATA</b>	<b>Young Tourism Professional Ambassador</b>	<b>Laos</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>R12</b>	<b>Tourism Australia</b>	<b>Destination Development Specialist</b>	<b>Australia</b>	<b>4-6</b>
<b>R13</b>	<b>Tourist Office of Spain</b>	<b>Media Manager</b>	<b>Spain</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>R14</b>	<b>Portuguese National Tourist Office</b>	<b>DM</b>	<b>Portugal</b>	<b>4-6</b>
<b>R15</b>	<b>Cyprus Tourism Organisation</b>	<b>Tourist Officer</b>	<b>Cyprus</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>R16</b>	<b>Turkey Ministry of Culture and Tourism</b>	<b>Director of Promotion</b>	<b>Turkey</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>R17</b>	<b>Greece National Tourism Organisation</b>	<b>Assistant DM</b>	<b>Greece</b>	<b>4-6</b>
<b>R18</b>	<b>Switzerland Tourism Board</b>	<b>Head of Marketing and Production</b>	<b>Switzerland</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>R19</b>	<b>Rome Tourism</b>	<b>DM</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>4-6</b>
<b>R20</b>	<b>Florence tourism</b>	<b>DM</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>3.5</b>
<b>R21</b>	<b>Brevard County Tourist Development Council</b>	<b>DM</b>	<b>America</b>	<b>10 and above</b>
<b>R22</b>	<b>Barcelona tourism</b>	<b>DM</b>	<b>Spain</b>	<b>10 and above</b>
<b>R23</b>	<b>China National Tourism Administration</b>	<b>DM</b>	<b>China</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>R24</b>	<b>Germany National Tourist Office</b>	<b>DM</b>	<b>Germany</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>R25</b>	<b>Tourism Malaysia</b>	<b>Senior Tour Officer</b>	<b>Malaysia</b>	<b>4-6</b>
<b>R26</b>	<b>Georgian National Tourism Administration</b>	<b>Head of Brand Development</b>	<b>Georgia</b>	<b>More than 4</b>

### 4.3 Procedure for Data Collection

In collecting data for this study, the first step undertaken was drafting a list of questions for the DMs. These questions were formed using the research questions and objectives (See Appendix D). For the semi-structured interview, the two research questions were:

1. How do DMs understand and employ shock advertising in their campaigns?
2. In what context has shock advertising been utilised in managing tourists' behaviours?

The researcher contacted destinations with branch offices in the UK through emails and phone calls, as it was easier to speak to individuals there due to the language barriers with DMs. Out of these emails and phone calls, some DMs did not respond, while others responded but were not interested in the research. Notwithstanding, we managed to book a few telephone appointments. Prior to commencing the interview, pilot testing was conducted with three of the DMs. This involved calling the respective DMs to enquire about a proposed line of questioning. This was essential to make sure that the research goals were met throughout the interviews.

This research used semi-structured interviews with selected DMs, as it was deemed appropriate for exploring and analysing data across different cultural settings (Parry *et al.*, 2013). The semi-structured interviewing style was chosen as it was a good fit based on the research objectives and epistemology (Jebreen, 2012). This allowed DMs to express their comprehension of shock advertising, the numerous variables that impact the application of such advertising practices, and their opinion of the efficacy of such methods. In undertaking a one-to-one semi-structured interview, DMs were given room to freely express their views on this sensitive topic and this helped bring those circumstances, arguments, or elements that were otherwise hard to voice in a group to the forefront as some may find it upsetting, offensive, prohibited, or awkward to say in public (Alston and Bowles, 2003; Flick, 2009; Yahia *et al.*, 2016). These interviews helped the researcher gain insight into the types of communication the DMs employed, issues they faced with their destinations, and how they have employed shock advertising, if at all.

The respondents included 26 DMs from both public and private organisations involved in advertising decisions and strategies in the tourism sector. Interviews lasted between 30 and 45 minutes. When DMs encountered challenges with the medium of interviewing, another medium was used (e.g., Skype, telephone). In the end, these interviews were digitally recorded and fully



transcribed to the language of the DMs. The interviews took about five weeks to complete and transcribe and the entire qualitative research process took about six months to complete. Upon completion of the data analysis using the thematic method, the researcher then proceeded to the quantitative phase.

#### 4.3.1 Framework for the Interview and Interview Track

The semi-structured interview with the DMs was broken into three blocks, reported in Table 4.3 below:

*Table 4.3: Areas Covered in the Interviews*

SN	Category	Sub-Category
	DMs' perception of shock advertisements	Attributes of shock advertisements
		Benefits and shortfalls of shock advertisements
		Barriers to the effective employment of shock advertisement
	Annoying tourists' behaviours	Types of annoying tourists' behaviours
		Management of tourists' behaviours
	Impact of shock advertisements on tourists' behaviours	Measurement of campaigns
		Effect on destination image

##### 4.3.1.1 Stage 1

The researcher commenced the interview with some preliminary/introductory questions about the DMs' job roles, experiences, and day-to-day activities. This was then followed with questions about the type of advertising medium the DMs used predominately, their advertising strategies, and target audience. These questions investigated how destinations have been marketed and how they communicate with tourists.

##### 4.3.1.2 Stage 2

In this stage, the first step adopted assessed the DMs' understanding of shock advertisements. DMs provided examples of shock advertising they were familiar with. It also inquired whether they employed shock advertising and to what extent. In the second step, questions were asked on the benefits and drawbacks of using shock tactics and what barriers, external, and internal influences could hinder or foster its use. Finally, DMs were asked about their experience of tourists' misconduct, why they think tourists misbehave, and how and who should manage these for the sustainability of the location. The aim here was to obtain information on the DMs' knowledge of shock advertising and how it can be effectively used as a management strategy to limit the negative impacts of tourists' misconduct.

#### 4.3.1.3 Stage 3

The questions in this stage addressed the effectiveness of shock advertisements and what components are measured after a campaign. It was also essential to check whether DMs would be willing to use this strategy and assess what impact they felt it would have on their destination's image. These questions aimed to provide insight into the DMs' opinions on the practicality of using shock tactics to deter bad conduct.

### 4.4 THEMATIC ANALYSIS

#### 4.4.1 Data Analysis: Thematic Analysis

Two main procedures and approaches can be adopted for analysing qualitative data: the deductive approach or the inductive approach. The deductive approach connotes analysing data with a bid to compare it with evidence collected and determine whether same supports the theme or whether more information is required (Creswell and Creswell, 2014). Conversely, the inductive approach uses the comprehension of the data collected to help derive themes, subthemes, codes, and models through the researcher's interpretations (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

According to Jebreen (2012), the importance of using the inductive approach is as follows:

- "To combine varied raw data into a summary.
- To create clear links between the objectives of the research and the results from the raw data and make those links clear to others and how those links fulfil the research objectives.
- To develop a theory based on the experiences and processes revealed by the text data" (p. 9).

#### 4.4.2 Justification for the Use of Thematic Analysis

Over the years, the tools for analysing qualitative data have increased (Meyers and Avery, 2009). The use of electronic aid in qualitative coding has advanced from using simple functions in Microsoft Word and Excel to using more sophisticated programs to code and memo (La Pelle, 2004). Thematic analysis is predominately inductive as it allows for interpretation to emerge from data through codes and themes (Castleberry and Nolen, 2018). The exploratory nature of this

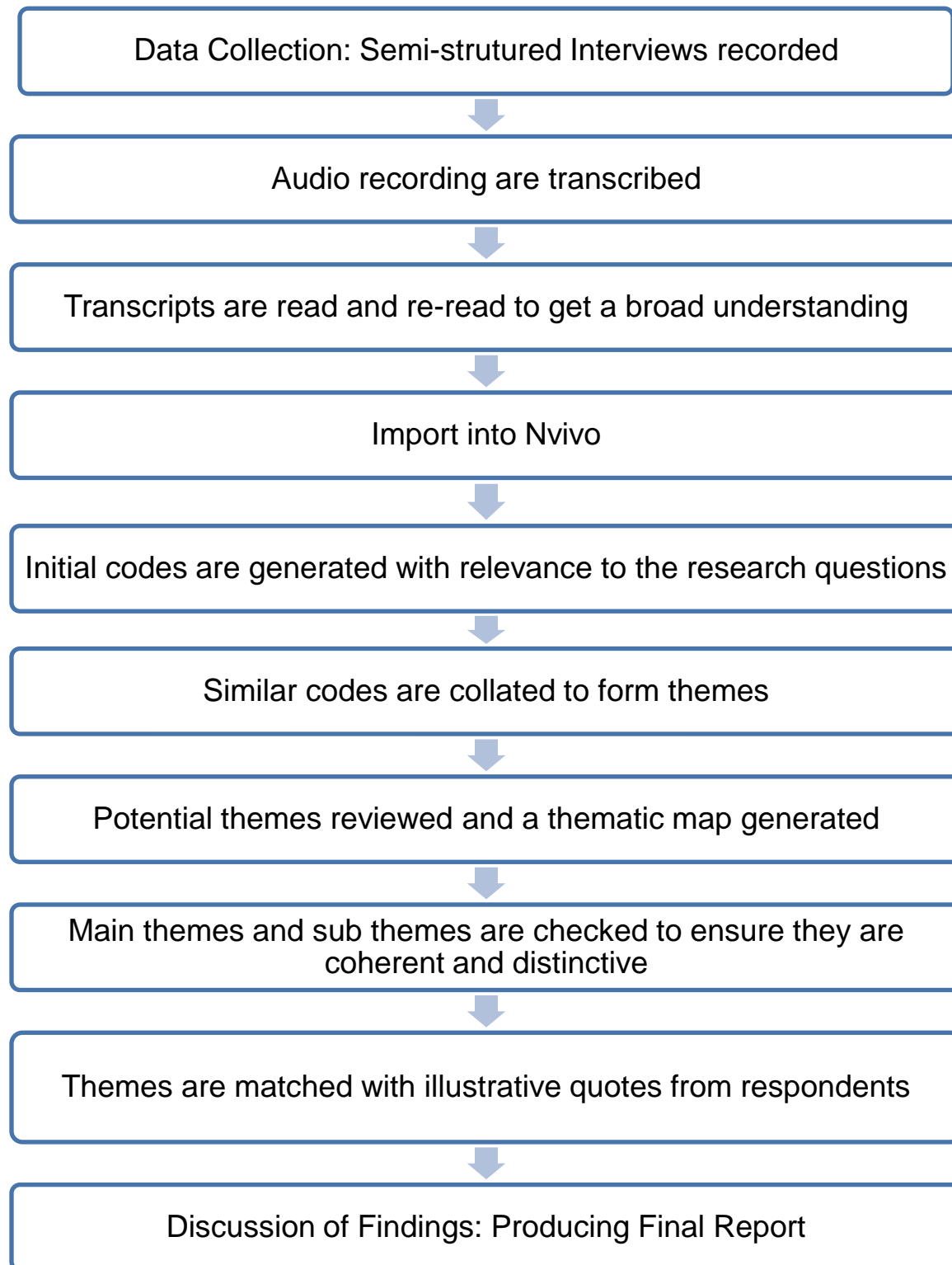
study and the type of data collected allowed for framing of analysis around the theoretical issues in the application of shock advertisement in the tourism industry.

Since thematic analysis is frequently used in “identifying, reporting, and analysing data for the meanings produced by people, situations, and events” (Jebreen, 2012, p. 10), it was adopted in this research. Qualitative thematic analysis was deemed the best choice for analysing DMs’ responses and the appropriateness of the use of shock advertisement in the management of tourist behaviour. It was also used because it is flexible and can easily be applied in social sciences and other disciplines.

The thematic analysis focused on framing categories that have been derived inductively from raw data instead of from a *priori* theory (Fossey *et al.*, 2002). Another advantage of using thematic analysis is that it allows for raw data to form codes, which can then be grouped into different categories. By putting these categories in groups, the researcher can effectively highlight the significant elements in the data. However, it is essential to note that conclusions drawn from qualitative research cannot be generalised and often the same results cannot be replicated (Castleberry and Nolen, 2018). This should not be a drawback of using this technique; instead, researchers can look for ways to transfer the knowledge gained to their area of study.

This study began with the process of data collection and note taking, which was subsequently transcribed for full and effective analysis (Jebreen, 2012). During the interviewing process, respondents were given the freedom to express themselves fully due to the adopted semi-structured interviewing technique. Hence, themes, ideas, and concepts could emerge rather than sticking to a prior theory or coding system (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998, Parry *et al.*, 2013). All the qualitative data was processed through a thematic analysis following ten stages (Braun and Clarke, 2006) as illustrated in Figure 4.2 below:

Figure 4.2: Thematic Analysis Process (Braun and Clarke, 2006)



#### 4.4.3 Thematic Analysis Process of This Study

The first three steps were the preparation stages where data from DMs were collected and recorded using semi-structured interviews. The next critical step was data transcription or copying the recorded conversation word-for-word. This was time consuming as it involved listening to the recordings and typing the responses into a word document. This process was done thoroughly to avoid omissions. The final preparation stage involved cross checking the transcripts to get a broad knowledge and awareness of the scope of the content. This stage is crucial and requires the researcher to search for patterns and definitions (Braun and Clark, 2006). The next seven steps were analysed below.

##### 4.4.3.1 Step 4 - Import into Nvivo

To boost the proficiency and efficacy of the data analysis process, computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) was chosen over labour-intensive analysis (Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2011). So, NVivo software was chosen. NVivo is qualitative data analysis software used for the analysis and reporting of data through 1) “managing and organising data, 2) managing Ideas, 3) querying data, 4) graphically modelling the ideas and concepts from data collected, and 5) reporting from the data” (Bazeley, 2007, p. 6).

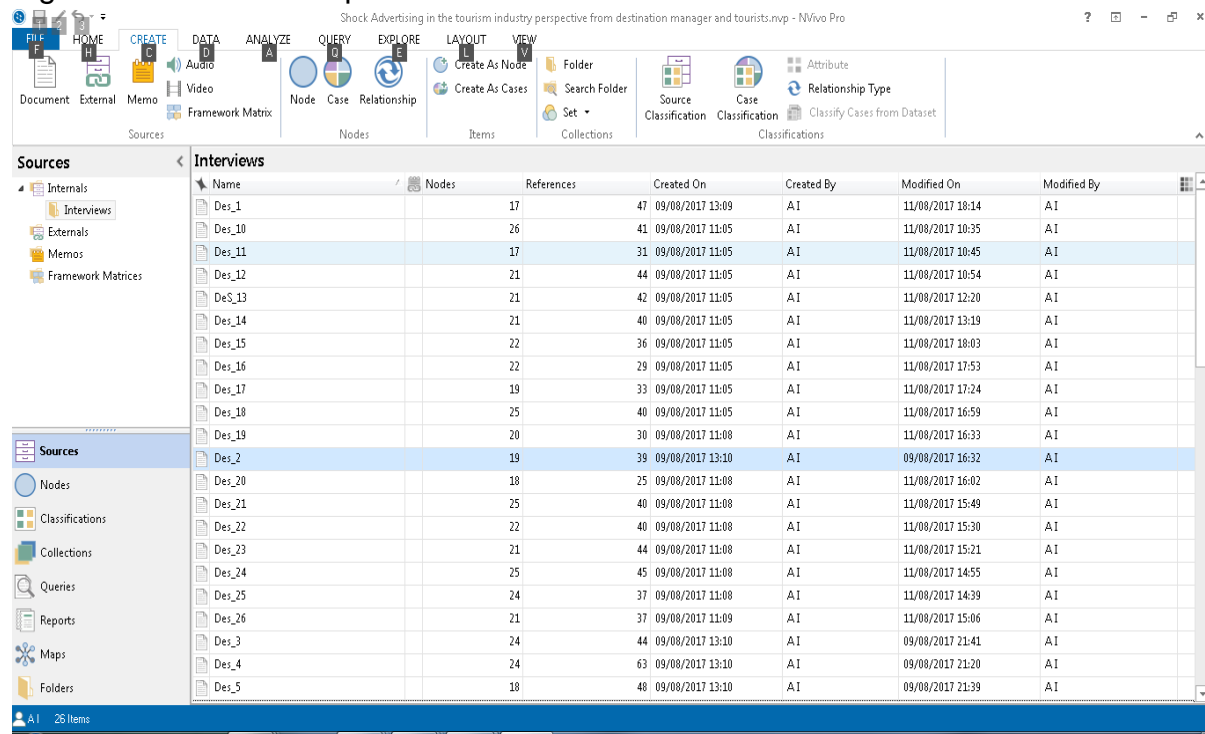
The NVivo application, a useful tool for coding (Creswell and Creswell, 2013), facilitated access to interview transcripts independently and compared them. The transcribed semi-structured interviews were imported into the NVivo 11 software used for data analysis. NVivo data analysis was used because of its advantages, although it also has a few drawbacks. Its advantages and disadvantages are highlighted below:

*Table 4.4: Advantages and Disadvantages of NVivo (Bergin, 2011)*

<b>Advantages</b>	<b>Disadvantages</b>
<b>Single location for storage of data</b>	<b>It can take a long time to get familiar with the software</b>
<b>Easy access to data</b>	<b>The tendency for the researcher to take shortcuts exists</b>
<b>Ability to handle a large amount of data</b>	<b>A reluctance to alter categories and information once imputed.</b>
<b>Improvement in the consistency of approach as it is regularly updated</b>	<b>There can be an issue of data overload</b>
<b>It is excellent for building theory</b>	<b>The software is purchased at a cost</b>
<b>Assistance can easily be gotten from the research team</b>	
<b>Universally acceptable software</b>	

Figure 4.3 below shows the sources and how the interviews were imported into the NVivo 11 software for data analysis.

Figure 4.3: Interviews uploaded into NVivo



Name	Nodes	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
Des_1		17	09/08/2017 13:09	AI	11/08/2017 18:14	AI
Des_10		26	09/08/2017 11:05	AI	11/08/2017 10:35	AI
Des_11		17	09/08/2017 11:05	AI	11/08/2017 10:45	AI
Des_12		21	09/08/2017 11:05	AI	11/08/2017 10:54	AI
Des_13		21	09/08/2017 11:05	AI	11/08/2017 12:20	AI
Des_14		21	09/08/2017 11:05	AI	11/08/2017 13:19	AI
Des_15		22	09/08/2017 11:05	AI	11/08/2017 18:03	AI
Des_16		22	09/08/2017 11:05	AI	11/08/2017 17:53	AI
Des_17		19	09/08/2017 11:05	AI	11/08/2017 17:24	AI
Des_18		25	09/08/2017 11:05	AI	11/08/2017 16:59	AI
Des_19		20	09/08/2017 11:08	AI	11/08/2017 16:33	AI
Des_2		19	09/08/2017 13:10	AI	09/08/2017 16:32	AI
Des_20		18	09/08/2017 11:08	AI	11/08/2017 16:02	AI
Des_21		25	09/08/2017 11:08	AI	11/08/2017 15:49	AI
Des_22		22	09/08/2017 11:08	AI	11/08/2017 15:30	AI
Des_23		21	09/08/2017 11:08	AI	11/08/2017 15:21	AI
Des_24		25	09/08/2017 11:08	AI	11/08/2017 14:55	AI
Des_25		24	09/08/2017 11:08	AI	11/08/2017 14:39	AI
Des_26		21	09/08/2017 11:09	AI	11/08/2017 15:06	AI
Des_3		24	09/08/2017 13:10	AI	09/08/2017 21:41	AI
Des_4		24	09/08/2017 13:10	AI	09/08/2017 21:20	AI
Des_5		18	09/08/2017 13:10	AI	09/08/2017 21:39	AI

#### 4.4.3.2 Step 5 - Initial Coding are Generated with Relevance to the Research Questions

“Coding is a way of indexing or categorising text to establish a structure of thematic ideas in relation to it” (Gibbs, 2009, p. 60). Data coding in NVivo comprises the formation of nodes, and nodes can be broadly defined as “the collection of references about a specific theme, place, person or another area of interest” (Bergin, 2011, p. 8). Codes can be generated by understanding the references in your sources, such as interviews and case notes, and subsequently clustering this material into meaningful groups (Braun and Clarke, 2006). There are various kinds of nodes, such as free nodes (i.e., stand-alone nodes with no bearing to other nodes or items), tree nodes (i.e., used to organise nodes into hierarchies), case nodes (i.e., nodes with attributes such as age and gender), relationship nodes (i.e., shows the connection between items), and matrices (i.e., nodes that are ideal for exploring further; Bergin, 2011). After importing the interviews into Nvivo 11, free nodes were created to help in understanding the flow of the research (see Appendix L for a print-screen of nodes).

#### 4.4.3.3 Step 6 - From Codes to Themes

In this step, quotes and themes were extracted from data with reappearing or replicating words and expressions to form codes. Themes are general patterns that arise from data and are significant to the research questions (Braun and Clarke, 2006). This stage of analysis involved sorting all codes into identified themes. Some codes that emerged in this research include annoying tourist behaviour, such as endangering the environment by littering, drunkenness, and using illegal drugs. In the formulation of ideas, extracted themes were represented as parent nodes and subthemes were presented as child nodes (Min *et al.*, 2017). At this stage, nothing was discarded, included codes that did not fit into any themes that were kept aside and labelled as miscellaneous (Braun and Clarke, 2006; see Appendix M for illustration). Some of the themes highlighted from the interview are listed below:

- Attributes of shock advertisements
- Appeals and non-appeals of shock advertisements.
- Types of annoying tourist behaviours
- Management of tourists' behaviours
- Measurement of advertisement campaigns
- Effect of shock ads on destination image

#### 4.4.3.4 Step 7 – Themes and sub-themes categories: the thematic map

The broad themes and subthemes identified in the research can be seen in Table 4.5 below:

**Table 4.5: Nvivo Themes and Subthemes**

Themes	Sub-Themes
<b>Annoying Tourists Behaviour</b>	<b>Anti-social behaviour</b>
	<b>Damaging the environment</b>
	<b>Drunkenness</b>
	<b>Endangering wildlife</b>
	<b>Illegal drug use</b>
	<b>Littering</b>
	<b>Risky sexual activities, nudity, and overexposure</b>
<b>Appeals of Shock Advertisements</b>	<b>Cost-efficient</b>
	<b>Effectiveness</b>
	<b>Generating Interest</b>
	<b>Going viral</b>
	<b>Increase sales</b>
<b>Attributes of Shock Advertisements</b>	<b>Attention-grabbing</b>
	<b>Awareness</b>
	<b>Change attitude and behaviour</b>

<b>Barriers to the use of Shock Advertisements</b>	<b>Highlights issues</b>
	<b>Memory retaining</b>
	<b>Governmental bodies</b>
	<b>Individuals</b>
	<b>Private organisations</b>
<b>Effect of Shock Advertisements on Destination Image</b>	<b>Negative effects</b>
	<b>Positive effects</b>
<b>Factors influencing the Application of Shock Advertising</b>	<b>Internal factors</b>
	<b>External factors</b>
<b>Management of Tourist Behaviour</b>	<b>DMs</b>
	<b>Government</b>
	<b>Locals</b>
	<b>Private individuals</b>
<b>Measurement of Shock Advertisements Campaigns</b>	<b>Attitude to the advertising</b>
	<b>Behavioural Intentions</b>
	<b>Destination image</b>
	<b>Memory recall</b>
	<b>Revisit/visit intentions</b>
<b>Non-appeals of Shock Advertisements</b>	<b>Alienate tourists</b>
	<b>Cause offence</b>
	<b>Ignore advertisements</b>
	<b>Legal issues</b>
	<b>Negative image</b>
	<b>Non-Lasting effect</b>
	<b>Disgusting images</b>
<b>Shock Advertisement Definitions</b>	<b>Moral offensiveness</b>
	<b>Profanity or obscenity</b>
	<b>Taboo</b>
<b>Tourism Advertisement Audience</b>	<b>Adventure enthusiasts</b>
	<b>Families</b>
	<b>Food and wine connoisseurs</b>
	<b>History and culture lovers</b>
	<b>Matured adults</b>
	<b>Religious travellers</b>
	<b>Young adults</b>
<b>Tourism Advertisements Medium</b>	<b>Billboard</b>
	<b>Direct marketing</b>
	<b>Online</b>
	<b>Print</b>
	<b>Radio</b>
<b>Tourism Advertisement Types</b>	<b>TV</b>
	<b>Information ads</b>
	<b>Promotional ads</b>

#### 4.4.3.5 Step 8 -Themes and Sub-Themes Rechecked

This stage involved going through the created themes and subthemes to ensure they are significant and coherent to the research and not repeated. The themes and subthemes are investigated in-depth, further analysed, and refined to ensure suitability. Researchers must review all collected data to ensure they are consistent and there is a flow in the codes and themes. It could involve merging ideas, discarding similar topics, and separating individuals' themes. Reviewing themes can occur at two stages: at the stage of coded data extraction and at the level



of the total information set. The coded extract level involves ensuring each theme is coherent, while the data set level involves checking for validity and ensuring it is reflective of the objective of the data collected (Braun and Clarke, 2006). In the end, the entire data collected should be reread and any coding or themes needed can be generated at this stage.

#### 4.4.4 Step 9 - Matching Themes with Illustrative Quotes from Respondents

The following sections presents the evaluation of data gathered by interviewing destination managers on their perception of shock advertising and how this would impact on tourists' behaviour and the destination image. It involved matching quotes from semi-structured interview to themes. It was illustrated with tables of various themes and subthemes below to provide a clear picture of the organisation and flow of data analysis.

##### 4.4.4.1 Shock Advertising Definitions

In accordance with the aims of the research, it was crucial to explore the DMs' understanding of shock advertisements and to categorise its attributes. As highlighted in the literature review (Chapter 2), shock advertising has many attributes such as those Dahl *et al.* (2003). The top attributes the interviewees discussed are listed below.

##### 4.4.4.1.1 Disgusting Images

In this context, disgusting images were pictures that showed body fluid such as blood, urine, faeces, semen, contain decaying items, death, gore, and odours. Disgust images are frequently used in threatening messages and help to enhance persuasiveness and change negative behaviour (Morales *et al.*, 2012). Most respondents used words that connoted disgust, such as "revolting pictures, repulsive, horrifying, death-related images, ill-stricken children's pictures." This Respondent 23 and 11 expressed the following beliefs:

*"Ha! I feel the display of images or words that are horrifying, terrifying, or repulsive makes the shock advertisement."*

*"I think any advertisement with images with just a little too much blood or skin, sexual and rude word."*

According to respondents, the most prominent characteristics of shock advertising was "disgust". This is likely because many non-profit organisations and charities use these images to garner

viewers' attention to increase donations or promote positive communal behaviours by causing shock (De Pelsmacker *et al.*, 2011).

#### 4.4.4.1.2 Moral Offensiveness

Moral offensiveness was defined as materials that are not in line with communal principles or rules, can result in disapproval, or be infuriating, irritating, or exasperating to others (Timmer, 2009). It could also be an object or image that is distasteful to the audience physically, rationally, or morally (Christy and Haley, 2008).

Some interviewees mentioned that some shock advertisements are not the norm and sought to stand out. For instance, Respondent 22 said:

*"In my view, defiance of the social or moral code such as vulgarity, brutality, nudity, faeces, or profanity as portrayed in advertisement can be shocking or unconventional."*

Respondent 16 mentioned *"violence and taboos or sex in ads can come across as shocking."*

Violating the norm can include violence and gender stereotypes, as these may be inappropriate in some cultures, age groups, or religions. Coyne *et al.* (2016) supported this notion and stated that other variables that can result in offence are rude language and any material that degrades individual self-respect or exploits minors.

#### 4.4.4.1.3 Profanity or Obscenity

Profanity can be generally defined as "verbal or words which are unsuitable or distasteful in non-casual communal situations" (Hair and Ozcan, 2018, p. 152). They may contain or refer to swear words, obscene sayings, or obnoxious slangs (Felman *et al.*, 2017). Typically, profanity is used to express feelings and emotions such as surprise, irritation, or dissatisfaction (Stephens and Zile, 2017). However, many advertisements use these to grab attention, such as FCUK, "What the CLUCK" KFC Advert and CU in NT North Territory promotional ad. Respondents 13 and 3 stated, respectively:

*"Advertisements that are not conventional and out of the norm, some contain sexual reference and can cause offence to the audience."*

*"Shock advertisements may include scary pictures and crude words and usually not what you come across every day. They are meant to instil fear and startle the viewer into taking action or draw their attention."*

According to Dahl *et al.* (2003), profanity can elicit shock and surprise when used in advertising. Obscenity in advertisements have been known to increase persuasion and sincerity because it can be interpreted to depict passion (Scherer and Sagarin, 2006) and reliability (Rassin and Heijden, 2005). However, profanity can sometimes lead to the viewers seeing the advertiser or organisation as inexperienced, naïve, and morally bankrupt, especially where the mass media outlet is used (Andersson and Trudgill, 1992). Given these varying findings regarding the role profanity plays in advertisements, it is worth noting it must be applied with caution.

#### 4.4.4.1.4 Taboo

Taboo can be simply defined as proscriptions that form an individual's everyday life and includes verbal behaviour and words that cannot be said in public because of decency, morals, and religion (Walter, 1991). Taboo in advertising can arise in two ways, either from promoting a taboo product (e.g., condom or funeral services) or taboo-themed publicity that can be verbally or visually showing a taboo topic (e.g., HIV and death penalty; Sabri and Obermiller, 2012). This research focused on the latter to investigate the implication and use of taboo themes in tourism advertising. Respondents 18 and 10 expressed their understanding of taboo-themed advertising, respectively:

*"Yeah, I feel blunt slogans that are sometimes used to highlight the public issues may come across as shock advertising especially if it uses swear words."*

*"In my opinion, any kind of advertisement that portrays taboo or controversial subject can be seen as shocking."*

Also, according to the respondents, taboo could include sexual themes, especially when aired in a very religious cultural setting. Respondent 15 expressed, *"I think sexual appearance can create shock ads, as this is frowned highly upon here in Turkey."* Respondent 16 also emphasized this, stating *"Definitely, I am sure violence and taboos or sex in ads would be seen as shocking as it's not the norm to use such scenes."* These responses were interesting because they highlighted differences across cultural and religious settings about what may or may not be considered taboo.

Clearly, most interviewees understood shock advertising, as they were able to express what kind of advertisements, they considered shocking. Most respondents had either encountered shock ads or previously applied them. While Respondent 26 felt shock advertisements could either be good or bad, *"Do you mean good shock as we have used that before?"* Respondent 11 asked, *"Is it the same as guerrilla marketing?"*

Nonetheless, when most respondents adequately understood the subject, they were able to give attributes and words that properly suited the term. For example, Respondent 8 stated *“any advertisements that are out of the normal and having violating content can be seen as shocking.”* Similarly, Respondent 5 reported *“video and pictures that show blood, death, scary images, especially from drink driving, campaigns few been shown at the moment.”* Finally, Respondent 13 added *“advertisements that are not conventional and out of the norm; some contain sexual reference and can cause offence to the audience.”*

These definitions and perceptions fit into most academic papers. For instance, Pflumbaum (2011) defined shock advertising as one that confronts numerous prohibitions to astonish the target viewers and appeal its contrary reaction. Venkat and Abi-Hanna (1995) also said shock advertising is regarded as an advertisement that intentionally offends its audience. Table 4.5 above shows the terms and references the DMs used that are in line with Dahl *et al.* (2003) who defined shock advertising as advertisements that are offensive or frightening, violate an individual's or community's norms and values, or are sexually unsuitable, rude, bad-mannered, or visually unpleasant.

#### 4.4.5 Tourism Advertisement Audience and Medium

##### 4.4.5.1 Audience

The relevance, assent, and success of advertisements have prompted many organisations to acknowledge it as a significant tool for disseminating information and generating consciousness in consumers' minds about social issues and functions of new and existing products (Misra and Vashisth, 2017). Numerous studies have investigated the interrelationship between demographic features such as gender, age, and education, and these variances would affect individual reactions towards advertising (Albouy and Décaudin, 2017). Many DMs responded that their advertisements were usually aired to a wider variety of audience, which included families with children, couples, backpackers, individual travellers, skiers, and wedding destinations. Respondent 26 expressed:

*“We usually target a variety of audience such as 18 plus, or 21 plus and families. Although we have various products for different segments such as backpackers, wedding destinations, couples.”*

Respondent 10 echoed Respondent 26:

*“Our audience are usually families, contemporary travellers, religious tours, food and wine connoisseurs, culture and history lovers and adventure enthusiasts.”*

Many of the DMs reverberated that their advertisements were aimed at a broad spectrum of audience. However, they also mentioned they sometimes target specific groups such as weddings, couples, wine and food connoisseurs, skiers, and some geographical locations. Respondent 7 stated:

*“We aim some of our ads to tourists from Southeast Asia, as we know that people from that region like to come to experience snow which they do not have where they live.”*

Shock campaigns are aired on many mass channels such as TV, billboards, and online channels without considering differences in viewers' demographics, though it is worthy to note these audience variables play a crucial role in behavioural changes (Albouy and Décaudin, 2017). However, when it comes to threatening messages, there are contradicting findings as to how variations in demographics affect an individual's perception. For instance, Witte and Allen (2000) found demographic variances did not significantly affect the processing and acceptance of threatening appeals. Albouy *et al.* (2017) found there was no difference between older and younger adults in how convincing shock advertising was. However, older respondents portrayed a higher behavioural intention than younger ones when it came to their intensity to moderate and extreme shock ads.

#### *4.4.5.2 Medium*

Marketers are also left with the crucial task of deciding what medium they want their advertisement to air from. This is extremely important, as an ad being aired on the wrong channel can cause potential offence or may even be against the law. Many organisations usually employ either of these two main mediums of advertisements: traditional or online advertising (Misra and Vashisth, 2017). Traditional advertising mediums include TV, magazines, outdoor, billboards, buses, and taxis, while online advertising mediums include website, and social media. Advertisers must ensure advertisements are aired through appropriate mediums, as some advertisements may be allowed in certain media but not in others. For example, sexual adverts could be allowed in an appropriate magazine but not on a national television station, especially in a Muslim country like Malaysia (Prendergast, Ho and Phau, 2002).

In terms of mediums used for their advertisements, many DMs used various channels. Still, most of them relied more on online channels as they noticed a higher footfall on online channels compared to traditional advertising channels. Respondents 7 and 17, respectively, reported:

*“We buy advertisement space in other websites and promote Sapporo on their space too. We also use Facebook advertisement, Instagram, twitter, as social media is used a lot. We have*

*invited bloggers and people that have significant online presence to come and post about Sapporo on their platform and we target visitors from China, Hong Kong and neighbouring countries...”*

*“In today’s competitive society, advertising plays a crucial role. Considering the importance and their impact of advertisement in public, we prefer to use several advertisement mediums such as social media, Outdoor, Billboard, Poster, and Transportation & Vehicles...”*

The DMs argued TV advertisements have the most tendency to offend and shock individuals, due to factors like repetition, interruption of programs, and its wide audience reach. As such, most often than not, an audience who is not supposed to view them views TV adverts (Christy, 2006). They further argued TV advertisements as more shocking for two reasons: (a) the wide range of audience that it reaches, which may be of great benefit to an organisation, but has the potential to offend by airing irrelevant messages to an unintended audience and (b) the stereo typicality of images and concepts often used because of the broad audience it meant to reach, and hence, may come across as patronising to some other audience (Christy, 2006). Most of respondents used many of the advertising channels to reach their broad range of audience, although the most used are ranked from 1 (the highest) to 6 (the lowest):

1. Social media
2. Websites
3. Magazines and Newspapers
4. Television
5. Outdoor Posters
6. Radio

DMs appeared to use social media as a medium in communicating and advertising most frequently, since it can reach a vast audience and individuals spend a lot of time on their phones. Advertisers’ tendencies to use internet sources such as social media can be interpreted by their goal to reach a broad audience as cheaply as possible (McKinsey, 2015). Consumers generally see social media advertising as ‘exciting’ and ‘contemporary’ (Anselmsson and Tunca, 2017, p. 723). Albouy and Décaudin (2018) supported this and proposed a younger audience could be targeted by using appropriate advertising mediums such as TV and outdoor posters to make scenes more representative and genuine. Although, when it came to shock advertising, they found organisations usually depended more on social media, as it appeals more to the younger audience who can share it among their peers.

Hence it may be more appropriate to air shock messages and pictures on social media and the internet, because of its ease of accessibility. Chen *et al.* (2016) found advertising on the internet allowed for better tourist satisfaction. However, tourists received traditional forms of advertising better, such as television, as it managed their expectation of the destination better. Nevertheless, consumers appear to take their cues on how capable and credible an organisation is from traditional advertising, because anyone can now advertise online (Anselmsson and Tunca, 2017). Hence, it may be better if a combination of mediums is employed to reach a wider audience. However, the allocated resources, creativity competence, the target audience, and the control that potential audience have, often determine the use of certain advertising channels (Veloutsou and O'Donnell, 2005).

#### 4.4.6 Appeals and Non-Appeals of Shock Advertising

One of the objectives of the research is to analyse the appeals or non-appeals of shock advertising in the travel and tourism industry, hence DMs' perceptions must be highlighted.

##### 4.4.6.1 Appeals of Shock Advertising

One of the frequently heard arguments for the use of shock advertising is its ability to get consumers' attention, which can sometimes be hard for organisations to achieve as they compete to be heard. Attention is also an essential prerequisite for further processing of information and behaviour change interventions (Peters *et al.*, 2013). Arousing strong reactions was presumed to be a feasible medium to pass on information. The urge to "stand-out", grab "attention," and remain "relevant" was often reported. Respondent 14 reported:

*"Shock advertising catches public attention as it is something unique and should draw them into wanting to see more of the advertisement, who wants to watch a boring ad for example of a happy family when there could be more drama in creating something different from the norm."*

Respondent 4 put forth another argument in favour of shock advertising; specifically, that it creates awareness (or the discernment of risky behaviour), as this is assumed a necessary requirement for attitude and behavioural change:

*"We have used slogans in both TV commercials and print media, and the aim was to create awareness among tourists who may or want to be involved in inappropriate behaviour."*

Additionally, Respondent 1 shared if a message elicited emotions from the audience, it would allow them to stop, think, and reflect on the relevant misbehaviour and consequences of such actions:

*“As a DM, I feel shock advertising provided by our organisation can change the mindset of individuals as it makes them stop, reflect on their behaviours and think about the impact it has on others. For example, endangering the wildlife species here is highly frowned upon, and we place leaflets at strategic places to inform tourists why we do not tolerate bringing in fresh products that may have diseases on them.”*

Emotional messages were also considered memorable, hence spurring the audience's memory, and prompting desirable behaviour (Peters *et al.*, 2014). Respondent 12 stated:

*“Peculiar ads stick out in the mind of the audience longer because a simple, straightforward message can be forgotten easily, as there are so many options out there, so it pays to be different and create an ad that is not generic like the others.”*

Finally, shock tactics have been used in threatening communications such as road safety, green campaigns, and others to evoke strong emotions so individuals are made aware of social ills and the impact they may have on others. Respondent 23 argued:

*“I feel one of the benefits we realised in using a strategy such as this is that people can think about the problem faced by the yellow river in terms of dumping of garbage and the impact it has on the community as a whole.”*

#### *4.4.6.2 Non appeals of Shock Advertising.*

Despite the extensive use of shock tactics in many organisation industries such as fashion, cars, road safety, antismoking, and charity fundraising campaigns, many professionals advocate this strategy should be used with care or avoided because of the contradicting findings and ethical concerns (Hastings *et al.*, 2004). A majority of these shock tactic campaigns were found unethical and immoral and promote practices incongruent with codes of conduct (Jones and van Putten, 2008). Indeed, over half of the complaints ASA (advertising regulatory body in the United Kingdom) received were due to offence and harm (Auxtova *et al.*, 2020).

Related to this, interviewees showed they were aware of the consequences of using shock tactics, especially if done inappropriately, such as using themes and words that could be unethical and cause offence to their intended audience. Respondent 7 stated:



*“Shock advertisement has been done very minimally so as not to offend tourists.”*

Another area of apprehension the DMs highlighted was that shock advertisement could make tourists boycott their destinations, as they will relate the shock element in the advertisement to their location. This was also echoed in the research of Ammar *et al.* (2014) who found the audience rejected a brand with an increase of negative perception on the advertisement aired. Respondent 11 claimed:

*“We have not employed shock advertising as my thought, and those received from my colleagues is that one of the biggest risks any organisation can take in employing this strategy is that it can isolate its audience and produce an adverse image in the minds of consumers.”*

Fereidouni (2008) stated some of the repercussions of using threatening and shock images and words are that the audience could be offended, and this could lead to complaints to regulatory bodies, lawsuits, negative word of mouth (WOM), and partial or total boycott of an organisation's products or destinations. Many respondents shared this concern, including Respondent 9:

*“However, I think the shortfall of such advertisement is if not done in the right way, it can ruin the brand image if the ad is to be found offensive and even lead to legal proceedings.”*

Respondent 26 also echoed this who felt tourists would not visit their destination if it were seen in the light of the shock advert.

*“It may leave a negative effect on the destination if tourists felt that our city had such issues and would not visit it.”*

Lastly, one of the interviewees raised the issue of the long-lasting effect of shock advertisement. The DM wanted to know whether the effect of shock would be remembered for a while, especially if repeated over time. In response, Ernst *et al.* (2017) proposed too much reiteration can lead to a reduced viewer response as the audience becomes bored from the message or tactic. However, other researchers have suggested wear-out effect could be delayed by using different executive styles and mediums (Kim, 2018; Tang *et al.*, 2007). In line with this, Respondent 24 shared:

*“Shock ads can be a temporary thing, you may get shocked initially after viewing the advertisement broadcasted, but after a while, the shock will be less as you get used to it.”*

Each interviewed respondent had a clear understanding of the appeals and the disadvantages of using shock advertisements. They were able to convey the benefits in using such a approach, using words like “awareness,” “going viral,” “stand out,” “and grabs attention.” This is in

accordance with Vezina and Paul (1997) who proposed shock ads are ideal for enticing interest and knowledge. Although, words such as “negative brand image,” “cause offence,” “fear,” and “racism” were employed in explaining the drawbacks when using shock advertisements.

Despite the many benefits of shock advertisements, they can also be counterproductive and cause fear and offence, especially when persuading individuals regarding addictive behaviours (Henley and Donovan, 1999). According to Machová *et al.* (2015), “the concept of shock advertising can be a silver bullet if it is used properly” (p. 111) to offend the audience, as there is a thin line between appalling someone and offending.

#### 4.4.7 Use of Shock Advertisement

Many social advertisers cited shocking individuals into action as responsible for the use of images and words that are found threatening. In most cases, the aim was to challenge and inform the audience of the significance of their risky behaviour (Peters *et al.*, 2014). For instance, Hartmann *et al.* (2014) found the use of environmental threat appeals was effective in promoting pro-environmental behaviours. LaTour and Tanner (2003) argued shock appeals are used frequently in health campaigns. For example, sex appeals are frequently employed in social marketing advertising to bring attention to breast cancer, HIV, and others (Parry *et al.*, 2013). Some of the respondents who mentioned the use of shock advertising also echoed deterring smoking by highlighting the risk of developing cancer in their advertisements. Respondent 9 stated:

*“An example of the shock ad I remember is one of a heavy smoker, and a picture of the cancer-stricken lung was displayed, and this content could be perceived as disturbing and uncomfortable, but it drove home the point, and it was widely referred to.”*

Findings showed shock appeals intensify emotional response, which influences individual behavioural intentions to not carry on with the adverse action (Hartmann *et al.*, 2014). Respondent 17 reported:

*“Yes, we used to ban drug usage; anti-social behaviour and some charities use it for issues like save the refugees and so many other aids.”*

However, some respondents also mentioned that one of the reasons shock advertising is employed is to increase tourist footfall, and the organisations that effectively employed it could reduce their advertising expenditure as it would be memorable and go viral. Respondent 10 and 9, respectively, shared:

*“Shock advertising can increase brand awareness, which in turn increase sales.”*

*“It can help a company gain more attention for the amount spent on advertising. With the trend of social media, there is the possibility that it can go viral and sticks to the audience memory.”*

It was essential to know whether DMs were aware of how to use shock advertisements, so we asked them questions in that regard. All interviewees were proficient in some of the ways that shock advertisements could be applied. Many of them reported only few ads that have stuck in their memory that they could easily relate to. Shock tactics have been used in various commercial and social organisations to advertise products and services like pregnancy prevention, obesity, smoking, diseases like HIV, safe sex, road safety, drunk driving, mobile phones, holidays, climate change, the death penalty, racism, and dental hygiene. It is now commonplace for shock advertisements to be used in charitable organisations, and we regularly encounter ads showing child abuse, animal cruelty, and poverty. In a social context, shock images can act as a useful educational tool. Nonetheless, the ads should come across in such a way that is delicate and does not elicit unwanted responses from the consumers (Banyte *et al.*, 2014).

#### 4.4.8 Barriers to Shock Advertising

One key finding in this research was that although many DMs wanted to implement shock advertisements, they are faced with so many barriers and oppositions that they end up not employing it or use it very minimally. Hastings *et al.* (2004) stated social marketers do not employ shock advertising due to ethical reasons, as it could affect individuals with chronic anxiety. Some respondents mentioned this position. Respondent 25 stated:

*“I have recently heard that the Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board restricted some shock ads produced by other organisations as they were found to be inappropriate, unethical especially for children and religious reasons.”*

Nongovernmental bodies, such as the advertising body in the UK, ASA, monitor complaints about any hurtful, shocking, and detrimental ads, and have the power to ban, fine, and restrict the airing of any such advertisements (ASA, 2020). The DMs were wary of such restrictions on their ads, as that could generate negative publicity about their destination. Respondent 18 mentioned this:

*“Some nongovernment bodies in Switzerland oppose the use of such ads as they are seen as unethical.”*

Also, governmental organisations in countries such as Malaysia, India, and Turkey have many advertisement restrictions, including what can be advertised, when it can be advertised, and on what media as discussed in Chapter 2 and mentioned by some of the interviewees. Respondent 16 shared:

*“You know Turkish law strictly prohibits the sale or use of illegal drugs all over the country, and any reference to illegal drugs could be a problem, also any nudity or sexual references would be frowned upon.”*

Some of the recommendations in overcoming these barriers include obtaining the approval of key executives involved in the creative design process. Respondent 21 reported:

*“I feel internal factors like if our executives should be more enthusiastic and innovative in making creative design posters.”*

One respondent noted the way the audience reacts to an advertisement is pivotal in determining whether any opposition will arise. Respondent 25 stated:

*“...reaction from the audience or monitoring bodies can also play a part externally if the advertisement will be executed or not.”*

#### 4.4.9 Measurement of Shock Advertisements Campaigns

Shock advertising is seen as a strong tactic to convince people to modify their behaviours and attitudes (Mehta, 2000). Nevertheless, the effectiveness of its strategy must be measured. There are several ways this can be done, and the DMs raised a few areas they felt would show the success of the campaign. Many findings have reported attitude towards advertisements (Aad) predicts the efficacy of ads, product/organisation attitudes, and purchase intentions (Yaakop, 2010). (Aad) is beneficial as it helps explain the effect of the advertising stimulus on audience behaviour and intentions (Ishaq *et al.*, 2015). In this research, (Aad) is the audience's predisposition to respond to the advertising message in a pleasing or unpleasing way. Respondent 15 stated if she were to use shock tactics, she would want to know tourists' attitudes toward the ads and their behavioural changes. Respondent 15 reported:

*“We have not recently carried out any research on the impact of shock ads, but if it were to be done, it would be necessary to assess changes in behaviour and attitudes that are problematic. It may also be beneficial to analyse if the ad has affected the destination image and if tourists are still willing to visit our country.”*

Jin *et al.* (2016) stated intention to visit was one of the main goals of tourism advertising and that, in general, advertising had a great impact on tourists' perceptions and attitudes, especially when alteration of behaviour was needed. Respondents 13 and 18, respectively, reported:

*"Understanding whether tourists would return to our destination is paramount, and we frequently check as well as if they are willing to recommend it to their friends and families, these tests are randomly carried out in hotels, resorts, and other locations."*

*"We analyse behavioural intentions of people after the advertisement is executed and also their intention to return to our destination is also very crucial to assess as our organisation is always trying to beat out tourist arrivals each year."*

An interesting area the DMs highlighted was the way tourists would perceive their destination, such as whether the social ills that they were worried about were portrayed in the shock ads. This is of peculiar importance as the destination image influences tourists' destination selection and intentions (Shankar, 2018). Respondent 26 reported:

*"The way tourist views our country is very crucial to us, and hence, the research department also assesses questions about this and also their purchase intentions."*

Finally, shock themes are typically known to increase attention to organisation information and advertising (Myers *et al.*, 2020). Hence, most DMs were keen to assess how much of the advertisement's tourists would remember. Respondent 24 elaborated:

*"To assess the effectiveness of our advertisement campaign, we carry out a direct interview and survey with tourists to understand the effect of any of our advertisements, whether be it shock or promotional ads. We ask questions to see which element of the advertisement that is mostly remembered by the audience; how they react to the ads, and this can be understood more by carrying out a memory recall test."*

In discussing the DMs' marketing strategies, the importance of measuring the effectiveness of the campaigns employed was highlighted. Many DMs already carried out such research activities internally, while some outsourced it to other external marketing research agencies or internal departments, such as their research and development department.

The DMs were all keen on knowing whether there would be a repeat purchase after tourists viewed their advertisements, and this may be because they had a target to achieve and surpass. This issue always came up in discussions about measuring the effectiveness of the advertisement campaigns.

#### 4.4.10 Annoying Tourists' Behaviour

A few studies focus on exasperating tourists' behaviour such as "irresponsible behaviour" (Volgger and Huang, 2019, p. 2526), "antisocial behaviour" (Borradaile, 2012, p.50), "annoying behaviour" (Loi and Pearce, 2012, p.395), "misbehaviour" (Harris, 2012, p.1070), and "risky behaviour" (Made Priyantha Wedagama and Wishart, 2019). Borradaile (2012) defines tourists' antisocial behaviour "as including a diverse range of activities by individuals or groups which affects the quality of lives of other tourists, the host destination community and key stakeholders in businesses and organisations through lack of awareness and choosing to ignore and/or oppose the accepted social norms of the host majority population" (p. 118). All respondents have had exposure to behaviours that were not a norm in tourists' home countries. Many of them, like Respondents 18, 15, and 16, respectively, were quick to mention such behaviours:

*"In Switzerland, recently the government introduced special coach in trains specifically for Chinese tourists because of their loud and rude behaviour. This kind of behaviour is very odd and unusual as Swizz people are normally reserved and considerate of other people."*

*"Anti-social behaviour is typical in Cyprus; hence, Public Spaces Protection Order is implemented frequently to control the anti-social behaviour in specific areas of Cyprus. Some tourists drinking alcohol in the street, approach people for casual labour and obstructing others by congregating in groups of two or more."*

*"Behaviours such as Indecent exposure, nudity, is anti-social behaviours."*

Respondent 16 also mentioned there were a lot of nudity and indecent exposure among tourists in their destinations and frowned upon it, as such was not the norm in Turkey due to their religious beliefs, traditions, and customs.

Binge drinking and the use of illegal drugs was another factor that DMs considered a challenging tourist behaviour displayed in their locations. Many authors note that when young individuals misuse alcohol and drugs, they are more prone to injuries, mental issues, accidents, and risky behaviours (Glomjai, 2015). These issues were a serious concern for the DMs, as they felt this would discourage other tourists from coming and enjoying their locations. Respondents 22 and 13 reported, respectively:

*“We received a lot of complaints about all-night parties, drinking in the street and public nudity. Hence, we decided to execute an advert against this kind of bad behaviour in Barcelona. The poster created showed two drunk and rowdy individuals fighting in the street, and as a result, one person was killed. This ad was done to highlight the consequences of drunkenness as it can quickly escalate to a serious crime that can change the individual's lives in a split second.”*

*“Activities such as the using of illegal drugs, excessive consumption of alcoholic drinking and some anti-social behaviours are a big problem in many of the tourist spots around the country.”*

The issues surrounding nature contamination and conservation destruction in holiday destinations are progressively plausible, and stakeholders are becoming more aware of the constraints they bring to sustainable tourism (Cheng and Zhang, 2017). DM raised problems such as endangering wildlife and environmental littering and noted these have become all too common for them in their jobs. Some of the interviewees, including Respondents 24 and 19, respectively, expressed their concerns:

*“We face problems like drunkenness, littering, anti-social behaviour, racism but many of these problems are not unique just to our country, so we do not see it as a major issue as we know it is common in most of Europe.”*

*“We get complaints and make arrests of tourists destroying ancient monuments and drunkenness.”*

The DMs all expressed tourist misbehaviour was a concern for them in their destinations and highlighted areas where they considered the issue to be more prevalent. For instance, a DM stated annoying tourists' behaviours were recently becoming common in the city of Magaluf, Spain. He stated there has been several incidents of tourists running naked in the street to the beach and drunken hooligans causing fights after football matches. When the police investigated such conducts, fines were levied on the spot. However, the local council has stated it is attempting to improve its image and would not tolerate such behaviour, as it is a clear breach of by-laws in Spain.

Major tourist cities in Spain and other European countries are desperate to clean up resorts that are getting a reputation for drunkenness, boozy lousy behaviour, violence, drugs, and prostitution. According to the New York Times, the Italian city of Venice has now been overcome by tourists who arrive on cruise ships and flood the area. Locals have complained these are not real tourists, as they only spend a few hours before reembarcating on the cruise ship to another stop. As such,

these locals have proposed limiting the number of tourists who can enter the landmark piazzas at one time, although the opposition to this proposal is local businesses benefit from these “tourists” visits.

#### 4.4.11 Management of Tourists’ Behaviour

In discussing the DMs’ responses to the how tourists’ misbehaviour should be handled, it became apparent that although all the DMs agreed that there should be guides and controls in place to check tourists’ behaviours, they had different ideas on how this could be achieved. For instance, Respondent 15 suggested the tourism board and DMs should deal with it and the police should work hand in hand with them in ensuring that policies and regulations are maintained. Respondent 15 stated:

*“I suggest DMs should implement a set of rules and regulations for this kind of bad behaviour of tourists, and it should also continue to be managed and monitored by the police.”*

However, many of the private organisations interviewed believed governmental agencies should work in harmony with the locals to check annoying tourists’ behaviours. Respondents 18, 24, and 12 reported, respectively:

*“The Government had already taken some necessary steps to change the nature of such tourists here, but local people can also support to teach them the culture.”*

*“Governmental representatives and executives such as us should oversee managing tourist behaviour with the right support and facilities.”*

*“The local people can play a massive role and also all organisations that are involved in tourism including governmental bodies.”*

Nongovernmental involvement is frequently used in the tourism industry. For instance, in the UK, it is common practice for pubs and night clubs to their own private security outfit. These private security outfits can escalate issues beyond them to the police (Borradaile, 2012). Some DMs mentioned hotels and bars could use self-policing. For example, Respondent 3 reported:

*“This should be managed by creating several billboards and printed advertisement campaign in the places where they are a lot of tourists and can be done by both private such as hotels, resorts and public organisations.”*



In summary, every participant interviewed agreed that despite the seeming lack of destination management of local tourism destinations and local attractions, tourist behaviours should be managed by a joint effort from everyone that is involved in the tourism industry in one way or the other (Pike, 2008). Tourism organisations are usually made up of companies nationally, regionally, and locally (Adeyinka-Ojo *et al.*, 2014). The role of the DM cannot be left to these organisations alone but should also involve locals and tourists. Pearce and Schänzel (2013) also supported this and proposed that for effective destination management, all stakeholders must play a part in the process. Though most research does not involve tourists in destination management, they are salient stakeholders that can determine the success or failure of any strategy or policy that is put in place for effective managing of resources.

#### 4.4.12 Effect of Shock Advertisement on Destination Image

The image of their destination was an essential factor for DMs; hence, they were asked how they felt tourists would perceive their destination after they have been exposed to shock advertisements. This was significant to DMs, as their scenery, infrastructures, safety and security, and accommodation are a major part of their advertisement and promotion and better positions the image of the destination (Byon and Zhang, 2010). All DMs believed the use shock advertising would play a role in the image their destination portrayed. Respondents 21 and 10 reported, respectively:

*“Yes, I feel shock ads may create a positive image about the destination with tourists as it makes them think and reflect on the pictures and wordings they have seen, and it can change their attitudes.”*

*“It may affect the destination image negatively, as I do not think in the Israeli context it would be accepted as appropriate especially if it seen as a taboo and not ethical.”*

However, some DMs stated this is not necessarily the case, as the executive style and congruency of the advert and the message that comes across plays a huge role in the light in which their destination is seen. For instance, it may be inappropriate to use sexual appeals in a conservative Muslim country. Respondent 26 shared:

*“It depends on the idea; implementation and reviewing of the marketing campaign; it could be positive or negative. That’s why we use marketing companies and outsource as they ask why this campaign and if it will be effective and make a decision whether to carry on and as long as it is in the concept of the brand.”*

A vital aspect of any firm's branding and positioning process is its ability to manage a unique and likeable destination image (Ekinici, 2003). Respondent 13 stated:

*“Shock advertising can be either affect the destination image positively or negatively it all depends on the application, the target audience and many other factors that should be considered before execution.”*

According to Respondent 13, the perception of the destination is vital for all major players in the tourism sector, but other factors play a crucial role as Tasci and Gartner (2007) and Pechlaner *et al.* (2013) noted—that destination images are not constant and can vary based on the external and internal factors influencing it.

#### **4.5 Step 10 - Final Report: Preliminary Findings**

This final stage entailed drafting the final analysis in such a way that the validity and authenticity of the research was highlighted. In so doing, the explorative study of the effect of shock advertising in the tourism sector and the preliminary findings of the report were analysed. The key results of the 26 semi-structured interviews with DMs, following a thematic inductive approach, are shown in Table 4.6 below.

*Table 4.6: Preliminary Findings*

• <b>DMs understood the concept of shock advertising.</b>
• <b>DMs understood the effects of shock advertising.</b>
• <b>DMs faced barriers in the use of shock advertising and hence used it minimally</b>
• <b>Annoying tourists' behaviours prevail in all the destinations.</b>
• <b>DMs are keen to measure the effectiveness of advertising campaigns.</b>

##### **4.5.1 DMs' Understood the Concept of Shock Advertising**

Almost all interviewees had been exposed to shock advertisements at one time or another and were all able to explain their perception of the word “shock.” Supporting the study of Dahl *et al.* (2003) that found for advertisers to stand out from the crowd and get their brands noticed, there has been an increase in the use of unconventional advertisement to catch the audience's attention and create awareness. The question that then arises is, has shock advertising become so commonplace that it has lost its appeal? Has shock advertisement become ineffective and do marketers need to look for alternative means of getting their brand noticed (Urwin and Venter,

2014)? If the shock appeal is not unique and distinctive, it will lose its effect of grabbing attention, memory recall, and retrieval (Pope *et al.*, 2004).

Most of the respondents' definitions of shock advertising focused on the content of the advertisement itself and words such as disgusting, blood, nudity, and rude were used to describe "shock." Nonetheless, "shock" does not only describe the content or context of an advertisement. La Tour *et al.* (1990) argued the brazenness of an ad does not only hinge on the product/service (i.e., the subject matter) but is also dependent on kind of appeal it has and the way it is demonstrated (i.e., context). Regardless, the DMs' definitions of shock advertising fit many academic papers (Andersson and Pettersson, 2004; Dahl *et al.*, 2003; Pflaumbaum, 2011).

#### 4.5.2 DMs Understood the Effects of Shock Advertising

In discussing the efficacy of shock advertisements, most participants indicated shock ads are an adequate tool for addressing social issues and creating awareness. This evidence gives backing to the findings of Parry *et al.* (2013) who stated partakers are more positive towards social advertising than profit organisations if the problems were made apparent and relevant to the audience. Similarly, Waller (2005) suggested controversial ads have great success in gaining publicity. Shock advertisement evokes a strong feeling in consumers that enables cognitive processing and is more memorable than conventional ads, depending on the receiver and the geographical region in which it has been aired (Yahia *et al.*, 2016).

##### a) Awareness

Respondent 6 illustrated the power of shock ads when he stated they have been used to raise awareness on problems that are of a global concern, and their causes, supporting Dahl *et al.* (2003) when he said, "norm violation is the key to a heightened awareness of shock advertising content" (p. 275).

*"Our tourism department has applied shock ads in creating awareness among people towards social issues. It helped highlight problems like littering by the roadside and noise pollution."*

##### b) Deterring Problematic Tourist Behaviour

The following DM reports echo previous findings that organisations can significantly influence behaviour by using shock advertisements (Parry *et al.*, 2013). Respondents 1 and 17, respectively, expressed:

*“As a DM, I feel shock advertising provided by our organisation can change the mindset of individuals as it makes them stop, reflect on their behaviours and think about the impact it has on others. For example, endangering the wildlife species here is highly frowned upon, and we place leaflets at strategic places to inform tourists why we do not tolerate bringing in fresh products that may have diseases on them.”*

*“I feel shock ads increases memory, attention and positively influence behaviour; People always remember the advertisements in the long term as it stands out of the norm. These effects should be measured.”*

#### c) Effect on Destination Image

Another finding was that DMs consider tourists' opinions of their destination as an indicator that they would probably visit or recommend it to their friends and families. The image of the destination is frequently said to be more important than the destination itself. It can act as a discernment in the mind of tourists, affecting the preparation process of their holiday (El Kadhi, 2008). Assaker et al. (2011) stated the consumers' optimistic discernment of a destination surges the revisit intention over time. Since the DMs aim to attract and promote their location, the way their destination is perceived is a crucial factor.

Hallmann et al. (2015) defined destination image “as the tourists' and sellers' perceptions of the attributes or attractions available within a destination and plays a crucial role in the description, promotion, amalgamation, and delivery of the destinations' product distribution” (p. 95). While Echtner and Ritchie (2003) put it as the “perceptions held by potential visitors about an area” (p. 41). Though, researchers should be cognisant that destination images are not constant, and DMs need to periodically assess themselves to identify its weaknesses and strengths and devise strategies tailored to their specific locations (Kaur and Chauhan, 2016). DMs should not only consider tourists' opinions of their destination image after a trip, but also their view of the location image prior to and throughout the journey (Kim and Chen, 2016).

#### 4.5.3 DMs Faced Barriers in the Use of Shock Advertising and Used it Minimally.

Most DMs have employed shock advertising either previously or to a bare minimum, but many reported no longer proactively using it due to fear of consequences, the authorisation process, or the efficiency of such advertisements. Klara (2012) said shock advertisements could lead to the audience becoming upset, annoyed, and disgruntled. This supports Urwin and Venter's (2014)

research that proposed shock appeals have been 'overused' in the '80s, lost their charm, and made the audience uncomfortable. One of the recommendations, as Respondent 7 proposed, was to probably apply shock advertising to tourists that are already on their holiday in the destination to raise their understanding and inform them on behaviours and attitudes that would be frowned upon.

*"Yes, unquestionably, we have used shock advertising, but we do not use it very frequently, and when we did this, we put the ads in various national magazines and brochures and circulated it to tourists already in our country to avoid scaring potential travellers away."*

DMs are faced with many barriers regarding the use of shock advertisement, one of which is the effect of the ad on the target audience. Williams (2009) proposed consumers and individuals may oppose an organisation's products and services if they find their advertisement too shocking; they may deliberately look away or change the channel. Despite that, Illicic and Blakemore (2015) found young adult consumers found mildly controversial advertisements more exciting and likeable and were more likely to purchase a product that employed this strategy.

Another barrier is the restriction governmental bodies and private organisations placed on advertisement in many developed countries for when certain advertisements can be aired and the permissible content of the message. For instance, Australia Association for National Advertisers (2019) code of ethics stated an ad should contain appropriate language and any extremely inappropriate language should be avoided. Also, the UK and the US advertising commission prohibits the use of certain words, pictures, and contents between the hours of 6:00 AM and 10:00 PM when there are young viewers. Regardless of these restrictions, many governmental organisations still use shock appeals in numerous health campaigns, such as road safety, healthy eating, smoking, and diseases and infections (Bainbridge, 1996) due to the success of such strategies (Brennan and Binney, 2010). Table 4.7 shows the factors influencing the use of shock advertisements are categorised into two broad terms: internal and external.

**Table 4:7: Barriers That Influence the Use of Shock Advertisements**

Theme	Sub-Theme	Illustrative Responses
Barriers influencing the use of Shock Advertising	External Factors	<p><i>“On the whole, the factors that can influence us as an organisation to apply shock ads are the influx of tourists, annoying behaviours and also having the right resources to execute it properly” (Respondent 18).</i></p> <p><i>“As regards external factors to my knowledge, it all boils down to financial approval from major contributors for advertisements” (Respondent 2).</i></p>
	Internal Factors	<p><i>“Few top individuals internally have vehemently opposed the use of shock advertisements for the fear that it may not be executed in the right manner” (Respondent 6).</i></p> <p><i>“Internal factors like the creativity level and interest of people working in the department have a huge role to play in executing a project like this” (Respondent 7).</i></p>

In discussing the factors that influence the application of shock advertising, the respondents all understood that it must be done in the right context; otherwise, it could be a double-edged sword with repercussions. External influences such as access to appropriate resources and authorisation from external groups, internal aspects like the ingenuity of the marketing team, budget, and approval from the senior management and the action of tourists, will affect the success of this approach. So, although creativity of the tourism board is vital, the advertising medium used can also influence the advertisement.

#### 4.5.4 Annoying Tourists Behaviours Prevail in all the Destinations.

All the DMs interviewed stated they experience annoying tourists' behaviours. In some of the frequently visited destinations like Cyprus, Florence, Spain, and New York, this is a big challenge that their governments are grappling to curtail. However, smaller destinations do not necessarily see it as a problem and are more willing to promote their destination than raise awareness of these problems. Table 4.8 below highlights some of the annoying behaviours the DMs mentioned.

**Table 4:8: Types of Annoying Behaviour**

Annoying Behaviour	References
Anti-social behaviour	30
Damaging the environment	11
Drunkenness	18
Endangering wildlife	2

<b>Illegal Drug Use</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>Littering</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>Risky sexual activities, nudity and indecent exposure</b>	<b>9</b>

#### 4.5.5 DMs are Keen to Measure the Effectiveness of Advertising Campaigns

Sheth (1974) stated measuring the effectiveness of advertising is a complex process which can be likened to attempting to find a needle in a haystack, as there are too many factors that can influence consumer behaviour or attitude. According to Hamelin *et al.* (2017), measuring the usefulness of an advertising campaign is one of the most noteworthy challenges of marketing and advertising experts. The crucial elements that can determine the effectiveness of an advertising strategy is memory recall (Turley and Shannon, 2000), the attitude toward the advertisement, brand, the consumer's behavioural or purchase intention, and the actual behaviour (Lewinski *et al.*, 2014). Also, they know the way tourists perceive their destination, which to them, is their brand identity. However, measuring the effectiveness of destination advertising is vital yet expensive, especially if a traditional means is used, such as trying to gather information from the respondents. To be effective, the DMs may use newer technologies, which may encourage them to carry out the research themselves and frequently (Hamelin *et al.*, 2017).

## 4.6 Conclusion

There have been numerous disputes and deliberations on the advantages and disadvantages of tourism, and how tourists' behaviours should be managed. With the boom in the tourism industry, there still appears to be issues in the management of tourists' behaviours (i.e., in hotels, resorts, or other key attraction sites). To curb these issues, shock advertising, which has been successful both in social and mainstream marketing strategies and thus has still been used since its inception, could be adopted so it could be beneficial in managing annoying tourists' behaviours. This would ensure tourists have an enjoyable experience, help locals benefit from their visit and boost the economy of the destination.

## CHAPTER 5: QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

### 5.0 Introduction

The previous chapters of this work discussed the context of the study (Chapter 1) and analysed literature reviews in shock advertising, tourists' behaviours, destination management, and the theory underpinning the study (Chapter 2). The research philosophy, paradigm, methodology, alternative approaches, and justifications for the employed research methods (Chapter 3) and the qualitative research methods and findings of this work (Chapter 4) have also been discussed.

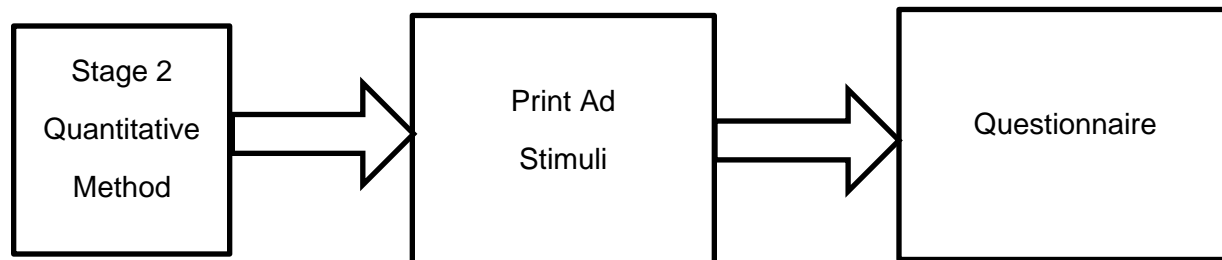
In this chapter, the findings from an online survey and in person distribution of questionnaires in Spain and UK will be presented and analysed. This will be done in four sections: the introductory questions will be discussed, baseline characteristics will be highlighted, main variables will be analysed, and the hypothesis testing will be studied.

This chapter is divided into seven major segments. The first segment will examine the research design by reviewing the research objectives and methods used. The second section will discuss the sampling techniques used, while the third section will focus on the data collection method. The fourth section will discuss the questionnaire design and the independent and dependent variables. The fifth section will examine the techniques used to test the hypothesis, and the sixth section will discuss the results. The final section will conclude this chapter.

### 5.1. Research Design

In Stage 1, DMs expressed strong views on how tourists perceive shock ads, their attitudes, behaviours, and visit intentions. After this, the researcher commenced Stage 2 by designing a print ad stimuli and a questionnaire to gauge the responses of tourists to shock advertising. Figure 5.1 illustrates the research design for Stage 2.

Figure 5.1: *Flow of Research Design for Stage 2*





It is pertinent to note this study explores how DMs can use shock advertising to curtail tourist misconduct. It aims to disclose tourists' perceptions of the creativity of shock print advertising, their responses to it, and the external and internal factors that influence its use in destination management. The main objectives are:

- To investigate tourists' misconduct and responses to shock advertising, employing the schema incongruity model.
- To provide evidence of the effectiveness of shock advertising on tourists' misconduct in the travel and tourism industry.

Table 5.1 below illustrates and recaps the implemented research methodology in this study.

*Table 5.1: Research Design*

<b>Implemented Research Methodology</b>	
<b>Research philosophy/paradigm</b>	<b>Pragmatism</b>
<b>Research Purpose</b>	<b>Exploratory</b>
<b>Research Approach</b>	<b>Mixed Method Research</b>
<b>Research Strategy</b>	<b>Sequential exploratory</b>
<b>Research time Horizon</b>	<b>Cross-sectional research</b>
<b>Research Sampling Technique</b>	<b>Heterogenous sampling</b>
<b>Data Collection tools</b>	<b>Semi-structured interviews, Survey</b>

As stated in the preceding chapters of this study, the pragmatic paradigm approach was employed to accomplish the research objectives, comprehension, and better understanding of the social reality and habits of tourists. Creswell (2003) argued to achieve study objectives, researchers should focus on the issues at hand and have the freedom to choose the various approaches and measures that best align with the research purpose.

Exploratory approaches are frequently employed when there is not much knowledge about the subject area, to determine whether the specific matter is practicable or feasible, and to create new views, ideas, and emphasis on the research to illuminate vital concepts of the research (Sarantakos, 2005). This method is commonly used in tourism as some of the concepts and issues are still unknown and not wholly comprehended (Mason *et al.*, 2010). This approach was deemed suitable in this study, as shock advertising has received little attention in the tourism sector.

## 5.2 Sampling

Numerous quantitative research studies have suggested samples used in studies are largely representative of the population and their findings can be reliably generalised (Bell, 2010). Given the primary aim of this research was to evaluate how shock advertising impacted tourist misconduct, any individual who travels from UK to Spain for holiday would qualify for the research sample. Therefore, it was almost impossible to collect all available data for this research due to time constraints, high cost, and inability to access data. This is where sampling comes in, as it permits a scholar to address these constraints by utilising a small subsection of the research population, enabling the researcher to make a generalised statement about the research question (Wilson, 2017). A total of 513 responses were collected, which is comparable to those found in the literature as illustrated in Table 5.2 below:

**Table 5.2: Illustrated Sample Size for Shock Advertising Studies**

Authors, Year, Title & Journal	Context	Media	Number of Ad	Sample Size & Method
Parry <i>et al.</i> (2013) 'Shockvertising': An exploratory investigation into attitudinal variations and emotional reactions to shock advertising. <i>Journal of Consumer Behaviour</i> .	Profit & Non-Profit Organisations	Billboards	12	19, Focus Group
Dahl <i>et al.</i> (2003) 'Does it pay to shock? Reactions to shocking and Non-shocking advertising content among university students' <i>Journal of Consumer Research</i> .	Disease Prevention	Print Advertisements	3	105, Experimental Design
Age (Mean)	Age (Mean)	Age (Mean)	Age (Mean)	Age (Mean)
Urwin and Venter (2014 'Shock advertising: Not so shocking anymore. An investigation among generation Y' <i>Journal of Social Sciences</i> .	Generation Y (1979-1994)	Print Advertisements	5	300, Questionnaire
Dens <i>et al.</i> (2008) 'Exploring consumer reactions to incongruent mild disgust appeals' <i>Journal of Marketing Communications</i> .	Tourism	Print Advertisements	2	244, Quest
Yahia <i>et al.</i> (2016) 'Cultural congruency and shocking buzz campaigns: Contrasting the opinions of professionals and consumers. <i>Journal of Marketing and Consumer Behaviour in Emerging Markets</i> .	Cultural	Online and Newspaper Advertisements	2	36, Interviews
Virvilaitė and Matulevičienė (2013) 'The impact of Shocking advertising to consumer buying behaviour' <i>Economics &amp; Management</i> .	Lithuanian Consumers	Print Advertisements	7	26 & 216 Focus Group & Questionnaires
Machova <i>et al.</i> (2015) 'The role of shockvertising in the context of various generations' <i>Problems and Perspectives in Management</i> .	Generational segment- Mature, Boomers, Generation X,Y and Z	Billboards	12	40 Focus Group, Interviews,& Questionnaire

Jones <i>et al.</i> (2010) 'Violence In Advertising A Multilayered Content Analysis' Journal of Advertising.	Violent themes	Print Advertisement, TV commercial	Print-98 TV-36	30 content variables and 6 themes
Zlatevska and Spence (2012) 'Do violent social cause advertisements promote social change? An examination of implicit associations' Journal of Psychology & Marketing.	Social Marketing	Print advertisements & TV Commercial	7	30 Experimental design
Vézina and Paul (1997). Provocation in advertising: A conceptualization and an empirical assessment. International Journal of Research in Marketing.	Fashion	Print advertisements	5	204 Questionnaires
Hagenbuch (2015). Should advertising shock? Journal of Biblical Integration in Business.	Religion	Bible verses	26	4 Independent survey
Soscia <i>et al.</i> (2012) 'Non-Castigat Ridendo mores: Evaluating the effectiveness of humour appeal in printed advertisements for HIV/AIDS prevention in Italy'. Journal of Health Communication.	Disease Prevention	Print Advertisements	4	240 Focus Group Experimental Design
Algie and Rossiter (2010) 'Fear patterns: A new approach to designing road safety advertisements. Journal of Prevention and Intervention in the Community.	Road Safety	TV Commercials	12	60 Experimental design

As highlighted above, the sample size many prominent researchers in the field have employed has been under 500, and these samples were deemed to be representative of the population.

Hill (2008) has proposed studies with more than one statistical outcome variable should have at least a sample size 10 times larger than the number of variables to be measured. This study had a total of 6 variables (i.e., level of shock, attributes and attitudes of shock ad, incongruity, behavioural, and visit intentions), and using this guideline, a sample size of 60 cases would have sufficed. However, many researchers have agreed the decision of sample size is a function of cost and statistical deliberations, but when larger sample sizes are possible, they are favoured over smaller ones (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Wilson, 2017).

The sample consisted of male and female tourists between the ages of 21 to 78 who travel at least once a year for leisure and not for business. About 80% of respondents were recruited using Qualtrics faculty research team who have the expertise to carry out research in this area. The researcher recruited other participants in airports and other locations in the United Kingdom and through referrals, as a snowballing technique was employed to some degree. Also, persons who the researcher was familiar with were requested to participate, and the link to the questionnaire

was forwarded to them with a further request to invite their friends, colleagues, and family who meet the study criteria to participate.

### **5.3 Method for Data Collection**

#### **5.3.1 Print Advertisement Stimuli**

To build upon research conducted in tourism advertising, exploratory research was conducted to analyse the relationship between exposure to shock stimuli and tourists' behaviour. In line with the research questions, tour destinations were visited. The stimuli design was adopted for the successful implementation of exploratory research and the validity of data collection from respondents largely depends on their perception of print advertisements.

Galloway (2009) proposed, and Wyllie *et al.* (2014) adopted the selection of print ad stimuli, and this was a two-stage process in this study. The first stage involved formulating and designing several print advertisements that included a shock element and portrayed the chosen destination, Spain. This research created several mock print advertisements, in line with the research of Walters *et al.* (2007) on "The Effectiveness of Print Advertising Stimuli in Evoking Elaborate Consumption Visions for Potential Travellers," where several mock advertisements were pretested after feedback from pilot studies and expert judges. These mock print advertisements were created with the help of Flipped Out Creative, a local graphic design company that has experience and expertise in this field. The graphic designer manipulated the pictures, texts, and shock appeals, so that the respondents did not recognise the destination shown in the advertisements. The pictures, texts, and shock appeals were designed in full colour so they could be clear. This ensured an unbiased response, as tourists' preconceived ideas of a destination can influence their responses and thereby impact analysis results (Danbury, 2007).

The second stage involved pretesting the made-up print advertisements on a small group of individuals to ensure external validity. The respondents evaluated two print advertisements that contained shock elements and were requested to rate the extent of shockingness from 0-10, with 0 representing no shock content and 10 representing the highest level of shock content. The advertisement was tested for clarity to ensure relevance to the subject matter and easy understanding for respondents.

Three independent variables were manipulated to build the print advertising stimuli applied in this research. The variables were the picture, text, and the headline that Decrop (2007) adopted.

Urban (1983) argued the format for print ads in tourism advertising is a slogan–photograph–text, although most researchers have focused more on just two components: texts and pictures. The use of image and visual elements in ads help influence beliefs and attitudes. Pictures and visuals also play an essential role in understanding the intangible aspect of tourism destinations (Decrop, 2007). The text component is a very crucial element as it is useful in passing on information and arousing behaviour and buyer intentions. Decrop (2007) found the logo and the headline did not play any significant role in the print advertisements tested for tourism destinations, though the headline usually appeared to attract attention and the logo “provided individuality and immediate recognition in advertising, packaging, point of purchase, and other promotional efforts” (Govoni 2004, p. 117–118).

To test hypotheses, two ads and a control advertisement were selected. Table 5.3 gives a brief description and attributes of the advertisements that will be used.

**Table 5.3: Brief Description of Advertisement Designs**

Advertisement	Type of Appeal	Attributes	Brief Description
Advert 1	Violent Appeal	Text Shock Picture Slogan	Young tourists involved in a drink-drug brawl on the street, a minor injury to both parties, and the aggressor being led away by police
Advert 2	Violent Appeal	Text Shock Picture Slogan	Young tourists involved in a drink-drug brawl, severe injury to both parties and the aggressor being led away by police.
Advert 3	Control Ad	Text Slogan Picture	Young tourists are having a drink on the street.

According to Decrop (2007), using familiar images and attractions that feature existing typologies of tourism makes it easier for respondents to relate to pictures and wordings. Existing typologies of shock advertising primarily drawn from a more comprehensive and frequently used definition of shock advertising (Dahl *et al.*, 2003) influenced the decision to feature these images and slogan. It included words and images that connote body fluid, carnage, body parts, orifices, illness, pests, death or bodily harm, masturbation, nudity or sexual acts, bad language, abusive gestures or racial epitaphs, moral offensiveness, and sacred taboos.

### 5.3.2 Justification for Using Print Advertisements

Advertisement is a crucial element for DMOs who are in stiff competition with other destinations to attract tourists (Amar *et al.*, 2017). The medium through which an advertisement is aired is vital, as some ads are permitted in certain media but not others. For instance, sexual adverts may be allowed in an appropriate magazine but not on a national television station in a Muslim country

like Malaysia (Prendergast *et al.*, 2002). Many studies that have employed shock advertising did so through various platforms, such as billboards, print ads, TV commercials, and online and newspaper ads. More studies have used print ads (Andersson *et al.*, 2004; Dahl *et al.*, 2003; Dens *et al.*, 2008; Virvilaitė, and Matulevičienė, 2013) in comparison to other media. This may be purely because of its convenience and accessibility or because subjects are literate and can understand the ads.

The choice of using print ads was based on two criteria. First, the use of fictional ads removes any preconceived ideas of destinations. Second, through content analyses of their advertisements by selecting several newspapers or magazines, ads would have the characteristics required. Notwithstanding, in an exploratory study, print ads do not allow the researcher to create the complexity of real-life settings (Soscia *et al.*, 2012). For instance, an imitation of a natural environment can either be a campaign rolled out in different regions or different shock appeals measured one at a time to understand their effects on consumer behaviours.

With respect to tourism, print ad pictures are used in conjunction with verbal messages in magazines and brochures. This can help shape destination images and expectations (MacKay and Fesenmaier, 1997). Pictures are an important element in advertisement, and the sender should create an ad that will, in the best possible way, achieve an end sale or a change in behaviour (Andersson *et al.*, 2004). The use of print ad pictures is common in tourism ads. Hence, it was deemed appropriate to use this mode of advertising.

### 5.3.3 Justification for Using Violent Appeal and Behaviour

According to the World Health Organisation (WHO, 2017), each year worldwide, about 1.4 million individuals lose their life because of violence. Violence is a significant problem that affects many countries. Therefore, WHO has made significant investments in improving research, educating the populace, and reducing alcohol availability and drug misuse (WHO, 2017). Violence can occur in different forms, such as “arguments, verbal assaults, insults, and threats” (Calafat *et al.*, 2013, p. 909). With the growth in international tourism, governments and other monitoring bodies are faced with the challenge of managing problems associated with the use of illegal substances and drugs, excessive consumption of alcohol, and violence (Hughes *et al.*, 2008). Tutenges *et al.* (2013) found violence and accidents occurred at a higher rate when tourists had a heavy intake of alcohol. Hughes *et al.* (2008) identified violence as one of the reported issues during young peoples’ holidays. Young tourists on holidays are at risk of violence, assaults, heavy drinking, use of illegal drugs, and sexually transmitted diseases (Tutenges *et al.*, 2013). According to Gurrieri

*et al.* (2016), “the five most shocking issues in advertising are death, suffering, nudity, sex, and violence” (p. 1449).

In advertising, violence is regarded as generating the most negative consumer reactions than any other vices (Manceau and Tissier-Desbordes, 2006). ASA states that violent content in advertising offends one in nine adults (ASA, 2012). Charity advertisements are commonly said to be displeasing because they employ a lot of cruelty and ill-treatment in their campaigns (ASA, 2012). Even so, most individuals understood why charities use such content as an intention to get an emotional response from the audience.

Violent advertising has been known to cause fear. However, it should be noted not all fear appeals are violent. Violent advertisements (e.g., violent video games, a violent execution) can be used to pass on information and provide data to the public. However, there is conflicting research on the impact of violent advertisements content on the audience, especially in children and youth (Krahe, 2015).

There has been various research on the use of violent content in advertisement. There are conflicting findings on the use of violent content in advertisements. Lewis *et al.* (2007) found women were more prone to alter their attitude and conduct in response to violent social marketing advertisements than men. Bushman (2007) found no difference in the memorability of the audience in the violence ads compared to the nonviolent ones. Andersson *et al.* (2004) found participants’ interpretation of violent content is usually more negative than advertisers anticipate (Jones *et al.*, 2010). Congruity theory states if the product is violent, individuals deem such adverts showing violent images as less shocking, such as violent movies or games (Waller *et al.*, 2013). Bell *et al.* (2013) opined by using violent appeals, an advertiser can achieve mass exposure and generate more income to ultimately influence behaviour.

Nevertheless, with the use of violent appeals, an advertiser needs to consider the ethical value of exposing the audience to a potentially shock advertising. For instance, in the case of road safety, the viewer may see it as upsetting but may be able to see the reasons why it has been aired, as it will be better for the community in keeping everyone safe.

In this study, an offence arising from violent content was very rare. Nonetheless, participants were more worried about adverts for violent games and movies as they were concerned about its impact on children. One third of the participants (32% or 10% overall) were concerned about the vicious and frightening messages in the ads.

## 5.4 Questionnaire

To test the different levels of shock in the advertisements, we opted for a survey method based on a questionnaire that included the stimuli, dependent variables, and control variables. This questionnaire, which was used to collect respondent data and gather information on their reactions to the advertisements and their behavioural and visit intentions, was designed to include closed-ended items (Nicholls *et al.*, 2006). Linear rating scales were used in the research and a 5-point Likert scale was used to assess whether respondents strongly agreed, agreed, neither agreed nor disagreed, disagreed, or strongly disagreed in analysing their answers to subjective questions. Likert scales are a psychometric response scale popularly used to assess respondents' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours. The most used are the 5-point scales (Jamieson, 2004). Likert (1932) found in the use of his scale, there was a reported higher reliability data compared to other means (Mellor and Moore, 2014).

The semantic differential scale which has been used in marketing research with results tested and approved was adopted in this research (Dianoux *et al.*, 2014). Notwithstanding, there are biases in its use, such as acquiescence, which is a tendency to slightly agree or disagree irrespective of the stem (Ray, 1983), and left-side response bias in which individuals have a higher tendency to select answers on the left side (Nicholls *et al.*, 2006). Some researchers believe negatively worded stems can be used to negate selection biases and increase attention (Soto *et al.*, 2008). However, negatively worded stems can sometimes be confusing and cause respondents to select responses that contradict their belief (Swain *et al.*, 2008). Uebersax (2006) proposed the questions should be assessed to ensure they meet the following criteria before proceeding:

- The scale contains several items and not just a few.
- The responses are organised horizontally so that they are easy to measure.
- The responses are evened out.
- The scale is used to measure attitudes and rate according to their agreement or disagreement with the questions.

There is a huge debate in literature on whether Likert scales could be treated as continuous scales. Likert scales are ordinal scales with no equal intervals. But under specific conditions, they can be treated as continuous scales. For instance, Lubke and Muthen (2004) discovered there is a possibility to obtain accurate parameter values in factor analysis with Likert scale data if



statements about lop-sidedness, number of categories, and Cronbach values are fulfilled. Likewise, Glass et al. (1972) discovered  $F$  tests in ANOVA may well achieve correct  $p$ -values on Likert items in specific situations, such as a stricter alpha level and higher Cronbach alpha.

When the questionnaires were drafted and finalised, they were pretested on a small group of individuals to ensure the effectiveness of the questions and adequacy of responses. In line with the research, the wording of the questionnaire is also of high importance as it has been argued the wording affects the response rate (Dillman *et al.*, 2009).

The participants filled a questionnaire that assessed their involvement with the product, which was travel and tourism. The questionnaire was divided into six stages highlighted below:

- Stage 1 addressed the introductory questions and aimed to find out whether respondents were tourists and how often they travelled and the ad medium they came across.
- Stage 2 - Questions in this stage considered tourism advertisements and gauged what respondents noticed in an advertisement.
- Stage 3 assessed the attributes and reactions to shock advertisements. It measured the shockingness of the advertisement and how respondents perceived the inappropriateness of the ad.
- Stage 4 looked at how unique the ad was and its relevance to the tourism sector.
- Stage 5 examined the likelihood respondents would visit the destination, recommend it to friends and family, and their conscious decision to exert effort to carry out behaviour in the future.
- Stage 6 - This final stage collected information on respondents' gender, age, income, educational qualifications, and nationality. This was kept to a minimum for confidentiality reasons.

Table 5.4 below gives a brief description of the areas the survey covered, and items used in the study.

**Table 5.4: Questionnaire Description**

<b>Ques.</b>	<b>Variable</b>	<b>Source</b>	<b>Item Used in Study</b>
<b>Q1-Q4</b>	Easy starting questions, to introduce respondents to advertisements and tourism		Frequency of travel, advertising medium come across. Destination recently visited; number of days spent in a holiday
<b>Q5</b>	Content and context in advertisements	Decorp (2007)	Heading, logo, picture, video, wordings, others

Q6	Perceived level of shock	Urwin and Venter (2014)	The scale of 1 to 10 (1, not at all shocking, ten extremely shocking)
Q7	Attributes of ad	Mercanti-Guérin (2008)	Scary, frightening, vivid, intense, powerful, explicit (definite), gruesome (horrible), highly arousing (highly exciting)
Q8	Attitude to shock ad	Dens <i>et al.</i> (2008) Baloglu and Mangalolu (2001)	Unfavourable-Favourable, Bad-Good, Unpleasant-Pleasant, Negative-Positive.
Q9	Perceived incongruity of shock ad	Mercanti-Guérin (2008)	Atypical-Typical; Unusual-Usual; Irrelevant-Relevant; Unexpected-Expected
Q10	Intention to visit	Boulding <i>et al.</i> , (1993) and Koo <i>et al.</i> , (2014)	Revisit destination, say positive things and recommend destinations.
Q11	Behavioural intentions	Chamberlain (2015)	Motivate me to think of alcohol intake, recommend to friends not to consume excessive alcohol, protect me from violent situations, think about the likely consequences of my action, recommend to friends to avoid violent situations, recommend to friends to think of their actions
Q12-Q17	Demographics		Age, gender, religion, educational qualification, nationality

#### 5.4.1 Questionnaire Pre-test

The wording of a survey is important because it affects the response rate (Dillman *et al.*, 2009). As such, as soon as the questionnaire was finalised, it was essential to check whether questions were clear. So, a pre-test was conducted on a small group of individuals to ensure the effectiveness of the wordings of the questions. Pre-tests and pilot studies are necessary as they allow researchers to see how well the research is supported (Blaxter *et al.*, 2006) and ensure there is validity and reliability when conditions are constant (Bell, 2010). From pre-testing, a researcher can assess whether instructions are clear, whether meaningful data will be collected, and whether possible improvements in timing, wordings, and visuals are needed (Bell, 2010).

The pre-test was done in two phases. In the first phase, a questionnaire was formulated to understand what participants would portray as shocking and what images and wordings they would use. This questionnaire (See Appendix 3) was administered to 28 respondents between the ages of 19 and 32 from different ethnic backgrounds in Spain and the United Kingdom. Afterwards, the words and images were analysed to generate the graphic design for the advertisements (See Appendix 4). The second phase involved pretesting the developed questionnaire. This was conducted with 20 respondents who were randomly approached at cafes and shopping malls to complete the survey. This phase was useful, as it helped assess how long it would take to complete the survey, how long advertisement viewing was needed, and how comprehensible the survey wording was. After the pre-test, the researcher realised it was

necessary to provide synonyms for some of the wordings, such as distressing (disturbing), relaxing (calming), and gloomy (uninviting).

#### *5.4.1.1 Questionnaire Procedure*

Data collected via Qualtrics, and in-person distribution was input into IBM SPSS 22 for analysis. Qualtrics was also used to design and uploaded the questionnaire onto the website. The primary report was done using analysis of variance (ANOVA), which predicts a single dependent variable based on one or more predictor variables and establishes whether those predictors are good. The aim of this chapter was to analyse the data collected from the survey and interpret its findings to achieve research objectives. In line with this aim, the first stage of this research commenced with a brief description of the measurement scale and sample characteristics. Following this, analysis was conducted to determine the validity and reliability of the results and hypotheses were tested.

The second stage was performed by circulating a creative questionnaire to explore the orientations and behaviours of tourists. Many of the participants filled the questionnaire through online links sent to them, while some were distributed at airports, restaurants, and other tourists' hotspots in Spain and the United Kingdom. The online questionnaire was available to tourists between the ages of 21 and 75 years who go on holiday at least once a year. The survey was accessible on Qualtrics for approximately four months—from September 2018 to November 2018—in which respondents were able to complete the survey. At the conclusion of the survey, a total of 513 responses were collected from both online and hard copy participants. Out of that number, 17 responses were incomplete. Therefore, only 496 responses could be used for research purposes. Nevertheless, the response rate was high, compared to other quantitative studies on shock advertising (See Appendix I).

### **5.5 Measurement Items**

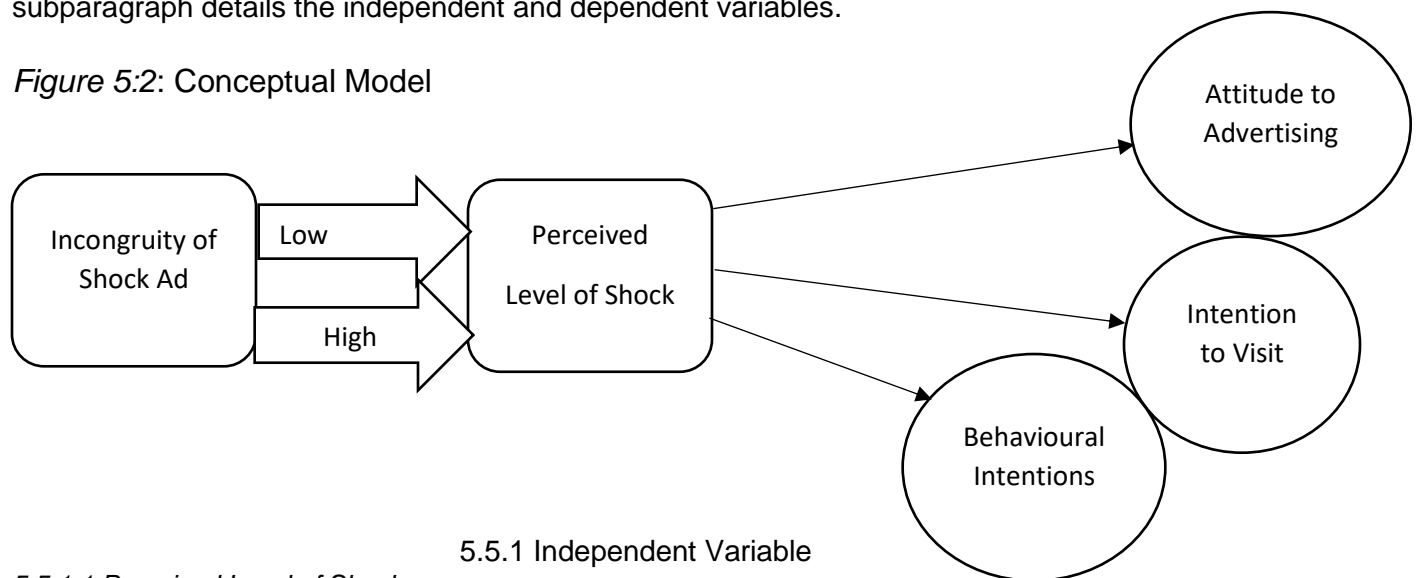
The value of measurement items not only depends on the constructor's context, but also on the methodological strategy employed and questions asked (Demir, 2017). Hence, defining variables and using the right questionnaire instruments will affect the quality of research data. A variable can be defined as “an empirical phenomenon that takes on different values or intensities” (Ellis, 1998, p. 19). Variables can take on different values, as they are not constant. In the context of research, variables are categorised either as independent or dependent. Independent variables started in experiments, and it aimed to test whether the autonomous variable impacts the reliant

variable. An independent variable is the presumed cause in a cause-effect relationship and influences the dependent variable. While the dependent variable is merely reliant on another variable, it is usually the one that the researcher is interested in predicting (Flannelly *et al.*, 2014). In this research context, the tourists' responses are the dependent variables, as they are developed from their perception of shockingness of advertising.

In quantitative research, it is common for independent variables and dependent variables to be discussed (Creswell and Creswell, 2014). Therefore, research variables are presented in the same way as the independent variable—the perceived level of shock of the advertisement discussed—followed by the dependent variables: attitude toward the ads, visit intentions, and behavioural intentions.

The main aim of this research was to ascertain whether there is a correlation between tourists' attitudes and behaviours after brief exposure to shock advertising, and whether this would affect their intention to visit a destination. Figure 5.2 illustrates the main construct measures, while the subparagraph details the independent and dependent variables.

*Figure 5.2: Conceptual Model*



#### 5.5.1 Independent Variable

##### 5.5.1.1 Perceived Level of Shock

In recent years, attentiveness to the significance of emotions has become more important in social sciences research. Accordingly, this must be critically analysed to gauge affective responses (Lloyd and Hopkins, 2014). According to Urwin and Venter (2014), the level of shock in an advertisement can be measured on a scale from low to high. Tourists' perceptions of shock of the ad were measured using a range between 1 and 10. Fam *et al.* (2009) and Engelbart *et al.* (2017), in their study, used a scale where 1 signified not shocking at all and 10 signified extremely shocking.

According to Huhmann and Mott-Stenerson (2008), the level of shock should be appropriate; for example, if it were too low, it would not be sufficiently engaging to achieve the brand attention-grabbing and processing objectives. Also, if an advertisement is too shocking, it may leave a negative imprint on the brand and consumers may ignore the product, associating it with the advert (Urwin and Venter, 2014). But if the shocking effect is moderate, it tends to have a more retaining impact than a conventional ad (Vézina and Paul, 1997). Shock advertising can be useful when done the right way, as it leads to increased attention, product consciousness, and a surge in sales (Waller, 2005). One of the aims of this research was to assess respondents' reactions to a different degree of mismatch and shock in advertisements, and how this would affect their behaviour.

### 5.5.2 Dependent Variables

#### 5.5.2.1 Attitude Towards the Advertisement (Aad)

Aad can be defined as “a predisposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion” (MacKenzie and Lutz 1989, p. 49). Mitchell and Olson (1981) have also defined attitudes toward the advertisement as the consumer's representation and evaluation of the overall stimulus. Poffenberger (1925) first used the variable attitude towards the ad (as cited in Singh and Hu, 2012)

Aad encompasses other items such as consumer attitude and relationship towards the product, brand, and the ad itself (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986). Aad is used as a variable to measure and predict the relationship between consumers' attitudes toward a brand and their purchase intentions (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986). Understanding consumers' attitudes toward an advertisement is essential, as it encompasses their emotions and feelings towards the ad, which in turn help understand advertising effectiveness (Mehta, 2000). Singh and Hu (2012) found buyers' attitudes toward an ad is an effective means and predictor for measuring how they will behave.

Aad is said to comprise two dimensions: cognitive and affective (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Singh and Hu, 2012). The cognitive dimension consists of an individual's response to their knowledge, opinions, and thoughts about the advertisement elements and components (Singh and Hu, 2012), while the affective side is a more emotional aspect and focuses on the consumer's emotional and communal needs that produce feelings toward the ad elements (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008; Singh and Hu, 2012). According to Mackenzie *et al.* (1986), the emotional aspect is so important that the feelings arising from its exposure can influence the assessment of an ad. Academics

have adopted these two dimensions to measure consumers' attitudes toward an advertisement (Madden *et al.*, 1988; Muehling, 1986; Zinkhan and Zinkhan, 1985; Singh and Hu, 2012).

Affective image and general attitudes are commonly measured in tourism and hospitality literature and measurements used are unpleasant/pleasant, sleepy/arousing, distressing/elating, and gloomy/exciting (Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001). Advertising attitudes were measured using a 3-item scale like that used in Dens *et al.* (2008) where respondents were asked to choose one option between bad/good, uninteresting/interesting, like it/do not like it, good/bad, favourable/unfavourable, or like it/do not like it. This was adapted from Machleit and Wilson (1988) where the attitude toward advertisement was measured using 5 items on a 7-point Likert scale, where the respondents were asked to rate their perception of an ad on the following: bad/good, negative/positive, unlikeable/likeable, unfavourable/favourable, and unpleasant/pleasant (Belayachi, 2013). This research will apply the same scale Dens *et al.* (2008) and Baloglu and Mangaloglu (2001) used in which attitudes toward the advertisement were measured using: unfavourable-favourable, bad-good, unpleasant-pleasant, and negative-positive.

#### *5.5.2.2 Incongruity of Shock Ads*

Essentially, one of the main goals of advertising is to communicate, arouse emotions, and facilitate purchase (Dahl *et al.*, 2003), although it is said that consumers only remember 11% of the ads, they encounter each day (Trott, 2013). Hence, the marketers sometimes employ mismatch in their advertisements to gain the attention of their audience (Waller, 1999). Shock advertising transgresses norms, generates surprise, and entices attention in the viewers (Lee *et al.*, 2020). According to Meyers-Levy and Tybout (1989), the extent of incongruity can be measured on how unsuitable and shocking the information is, and how effortlessly the receiver can organise it into their current schema.

In terms of incongruent messages, the audience has two ways they can process it. First, they can choose to totally ignore it and see it as irrelevant (Lee and Schumann, 2004). Second, they can try to resolve the incongruency by generating new information that is congruent with their existing schema (Misra and Beatty, 1990). Perceived level of incongruity can be measured on how unexpected, dissimilar, irrelevant, and unconventional or unusual the ads are compared to other ads in the same product or service sector (Lee *et al.*, 2020).

#### *5.5.2.3 Intention to Visit*

The effective use of advertising can serve as an essential element in fostering the image of a destination and in turn enhance the likelihood of a tourist visiting (Kim and Jun 2016). When

tourists want to visit a new destination, they usually search for information on different platforms, including electronic means, word of mouth, advertisements, references from friends, families and hosts, or they search their schema of the place to understand the destination and services they offer.

Ability to predict whether tourists will visit a destination is complicated and difficult to measure. In destination management, scholars use the intention to visit as an accurate predictor (Jalilvand and Samiei, 2012; Ng *et al.*, 2007). Intention to visit a destination encompasses the plan and hope to visit (Matzler *et al.*, 2016). It can be formed by making decisions and rational choices (Hennessey *et al.*, 2010). It has been suggested that advertising and other marketing communications stimulate tourists' intentions to visit destinations. Measuring intention to visit is an adequate way to check if the marketing strategy employed has been successful. Plans to visit can result from one's attitude toward the destination and other references to influence intent to visit the destination.

Cultural variations may also be an exciting aspect for potential tourists to explore since the image of the destination is essential in attracting tourists. Advertising stimuli and individual tourists' characteristics can form images of the destination (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999). This study is interested in assessing tourists' responses to shock advertising campaigns and stimuli in the context of generating interest, creating awareness, and measuring whether the mismatch in the advertisement will hamper visit intentions.

Canny (2013) measured intention to visit by looking at 1) destination revisit, 2) positive feedback, and 3) destination recommendations. Intention to visit would be measured on 5-point Likert scale adapted from Canny (2013), Boulding *et al.*, (1993), and Koo *et al.* (2014), and questions asked would include likelihood or unlikelihood of visiting the destination in the future, positive and negative reviews of the destination, and whether the destination would be recommended to others.

#### *5.5.2.4 Behavioural Intentions*

Researchers have found future behavioural intentions are vital variables for the field of tourism, marketing, and leisure. It was therefore necessary to study how individuals will respond and behave in the future (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2015). "Behavioural intentions can be defined as an individual's conscious decision to exert effort to carry out a particular behaviour" (Hsu *et al.*, 2010; Padlee and Reimers, 2015, p. 77). Blackwell *et al.* (2001) further defined it as an individual's subjective judgement about their behaviour in the future. Likewise, Oliver and Swan (1989)

explained behavioural intentions are planned or anticipated actions for the future. Oliver (2010) also saw it as the likelihood of instituting behaviour. Expectedly, a more robust intention would result in a greater likelihood of exhibiting the actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

Based on the above definitions and statements and in relation to this study, behavioural intentions are the likelihood of individuals endorsing specific actions for the future and recommending a destination to their family and friends. Table 5.5 discusses the areas of behavioural intentions that previous researchers have investigated:

**Table 5.5: Dimensions of Behavioural Intention**

Researcher/Year	Areas investigated
Anderson <i>et al.</i> , (1994)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Repurchase intentions,</li> <li>- Word-of-mouth intentions,</li> <li>- Willingness to pay more.</li> </ul>
Zeithaml <i>et al.</i> , (1996)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Say positive things about them,</li> <li>- Recommend them to other customers,</li> <li>- Remain loyal to them (i.e. repurchase from them),</li> <li>- Spend more with them, and</li> <li>- Pay price premiums.</li> </ul>
Bloemer <i>et al.</i> , (1998)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Consumer complaint behaviour,</li> <li>- Price sensitivity and word-of-mouth.</li> </ul>
Oliver, (1999)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Repurchase intentions, and</li> <li>- Recommend destinations.</li> </ul>
Chen and Tsai, (2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Revisit the destination in the future, and</li> <li>- Recommend destinations</li> </ul>
Kuenzel and Katsaris (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Intention to revisit or purchase, and</li> <li>- Word-of-mouth (WOM) recommendation.</li> </ul>
Kaplanidou, (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Intention to revisit, and</li> <li>- The role of past experience</li> </ul>

In this work, behavioural intentions were on Zeithaml *et al.* (1996) and Chen and Tsai (2007) and addressed revisiting the destination, positive reviews, and recommendation of destination to friends and family. These were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, where 0 was “strongly disagree,” and 5 was “strongly agree.”

## 5.6 Data Analysis

The first section of data analysis reported the distribution of the main variables across the sample. There were introductory questions that aimed to confirm respondents were indeed tourists and not any other type of traveller, like business or medical tourists. The travel characteristics of the respondents are described in Table 5.5. The results reported that for number of holidays participants take in a year, 62.7% travel one to two times a year, 26.2% travel three to four times



a year, 6.0% travel five times a year, above 4.8% do not travel every year, and a mere 0.2% do not travel at all. For duration of holiday, more than half of the participants (53%) reported going on holiday for a minimum of one week, almost one-third (31.8%) reported spending two weeks on holiday, 24% reported spending less than a week, 13.1% reported spending only a weekend, and 10.7% reported going on holiday for more than two weeks (See Table 5.6). This information may help tourism businesses speculate how long tourists may need their facilities for.

**Table 5.6: Number of Holidays in a Year and Days Spent on Holiday**

	Frequency	Percent
<b>Number of Holiday in a Year</b>		
One-Two	311	62.7
Three-Four	130	26.2
Five and Above	30	6.0
Do not Travel Every Year	24	4.8
Do not Travel at All	1	0.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>496</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Number of Days Spent on Holiday</b>		
Weekend	67	13.5
< One Week	120	24.2
One Week	264	53.2
> One Week	157	31.7
Two Weeks	158	31.9
Age (Mean)	53	10.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>496</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 5.7 below shows the types of media participants come across in terms of access to tourism advertisements and what they look for in those ads. Of the participants, 72% come across online tourism advertisements, 57.1% saw it on TV advertising, 17.5% viewed it on mobile, 16.5% saw it in the newspaper, 12.1% viewed it in a magazine, and 8.7% and 5.6% saw it advertised on billboards and radio, respectively. Most participants saw online advertising because of the easy access to the internet in developed countries. From 496 respondents, 247 reported looking for pictures the most in an advertisement, while 2 reported looking for videos. This supports the fact that most tourism respondents are interested in pictures, as they want to see the infrastructures and other promotional attributes in the ad.

**Table 5.7: Types of Tourism Advertisements and Features**

	Frequency	Percent
<b>Tourism Ads in Different Channels</b>		
TV	283	57.1
Newspaper	82	16.5
Magazine	60	12.1
Billboards	43	8.7

<b>Online</b>	<b>357</b>	<b>72.0</b>
<b>Mobile Phones</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>17.5</b>
<b>Radio</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>5.6</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>496</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Attributes Noticed in Tourism Ads</b>		
<b>Picture</b>	<b>247</b>	<b>49.8</b>
<b>Logo</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>16.9</b>
<b>Heading</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>11.3</b>
<b>Taboo</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>3.2</b>
<b>Wordings</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>7.3</b>
<b>Others</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>11.1</b>
<b>Video</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.2</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>496</b>	<b>100.0</b>

#### 5.6.1. Demographic Profile of Participants

The final part of the questionnaire recorded demographic information. Table 5.8 below shows 41% of participants were male and 59% were female. More women than men participated in the survey probably because it was sent online and females are more involved in the decision making and purchasing of holiday tickets than males (Mottiar and Quinn, 2004). The mean age of the respondents was 36 years. This age group predominately has internet access and could easily access the survey on their phones.

Other demographic characteristics include 36.1% of participants declared no religion, 55.8% were Christians, and a mere 3.4% were Muslims, there were a few Hindus and Jews, and 3% endorsed another religion. This is most likely because the survey was conducted in England and Spain where Christianity is the dominant religion.

In terms of gross income, 27.6% of participants earned between £20,000 and £34,999 (i.e., the average earning in the United Kingdom for graduates), 22% earned between £35,000 and £49,999, 15.9% earned over £50,000, 15.5% earned up to £19,000, and 19% did not want to disclose their earnings. Over half of the participants (57.7%) were White British, 15.3% Black Africans, 14.5% were from White backgrounds (14.5%), 7.3% identified as other, 3.4% were Asian, and 1.8% were Black Caribbean.

**Table 5.8: Baseline Characteristics**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>Sex</b>		
<b>Male</b>	<b>204</b>	<b>41.1</b>
<b>Female</b>	<b>292</b>	<b>58.9</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>496</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Age (Mean)</b>	<b>36.2</b>	<b>13</b>

<b>Religion</b>		
No religion	179	36.1
Christianity	277	55.8
Hindu	4	0.8
Jewish	4	0.8
Muslim	17	3.4
Other	15	3.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>496</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Earnings</b>		
Up to £19,999	77	15.5
£20,000-£34,999	137	27.6
£35,000-£49,999	109	22.0
Over £50,000	79	15.9
Do not wish to disclose	94	19.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>496</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Ethnicity</b>		
White British	286	57.7
Any other white background	72	14.5
Asian	17	3.4
Black Caribbean	9	1.8
Black African	76	15.3
Others	36	7.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>496</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Qualification</b>		
Secondary School	80	16.1
College	111	22.4
Undergraduate	55	11.1
Graduate	129	26.0
Postgraduate	121	24.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>496</b>	<b>100</b>

## 5.6.2 Main Variables Construct Analysis

As previously stated, participants were placed in one of three different exploratory groups, shown in Table 5.9 below.

**Table 5.9: Sample Size for Each Exploratory Group**

Exploratory Group	Message Frame	Intensity of Violence	Ad Type	Sample Size
1	Neutral	None	Congruent	165
2	Mildly Shocking	Low	Incongruent	164
3	Extremely Shocking	High	Incongruent	167
<b>Total</b>				<b>496</b>

### 5.6.2.1 Perceived Level of Shock

This section will address key variables that have been employed in the research to assess participants' response to them. As explained in previous chapters, it was necessary to determine how shocking the respondents found the advertisements as this will determine how they will react

to the ad. A scale of 1 to 10 was used to evaluate the respondents' perceived level of shock on all three advertisements. The three colours in Table 5.10 below represent the three exploratory conditions—green (neutral), orange (mildly shocking), and red (very shocking). From the table, out of 496 respondents, 82% found the very shocking advert either slightly shocking to extremely shocking, but the majority found it extremely shocking. Over 84% of respondents found the advert mildly shocking, very somewhat shocking to extremely shocking, but the majority found it somewhat shocking compared to typical tourism advertising. Finally, with the neutral advert, 45% found it slightly non shocking to extremely non shocking.

*Table 5.10: Perceived Level of Shock of the Advertisements*

Perceived Level of Shock	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Extremely non-shocking	24	14.5	9	5.5	3	1.8
Very non-shocking	15	9.1	1	.6	3	1.8
Very shocking	23	13.9	4	2.4	5	3.0
Slightly non-shocking	12	7.3	2	1.2	7	4.2
Neither shocking or non-shocking	21	12.7	10	6.1	13	7.8
Very slightly shocking	21	12.7	17	10.4	18	10.8
Slightly shocking	30	18.2	25	15.2	16	9.6
Moderately shocking	9	5.5	31	18.9	31	18.6
Very shocking	8	4.8	26	15.9	19	11.4
Extremely shocking	2	1.2	39	23.8	52	31.1
Total	165	100.0	164	100.0	167	100.0

#### 5.6.2.2 Attributes of the Advertisement

Many individuals find advertisements with violent appeals shocking (Christy and Haley, 2007). Hence, it was essential to verify respondents' understanding of the ads, as this style of advertising has been successful in industries such as fashion and drinking while driving campaigns. Table 5.11 below shows out of 496 respondents, 55% agreed the advertisement was strongly and somewhat scary, 67% found it somewhat and strongly intense, 69% thought it somewhat and strongly powerfully passed on a message, 61% found it somewhat and strongly explicit, 48% saw it somewhat and strongly gruesome. A higher percentage (53%) disagreed it was highly arousing.

*Table 5.11: Attributes of the Advertisement*

		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree/Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Scary	Count	45	64	114	171	102	496
	%	9.1	12.9	23.0	34.5	20.6	100.0
Frightening	Count	48	67	110	169	102	496
	%	9.7	13.5	22.2	34.1	20.6	100.0
Vivid	Count	13	34	115	190	144	496

	%	2.6	6.9	23.2	38.3	29.0	100.0
<b>Intense</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>89</b>	<b>199</b>	<b>166</b>	<b>496</b>
	%	3.4	5.0	17.9	40.1	33.5	100.0
<b>Powerful</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>95</b>	<b>196</b>	<b>152</b>	<b>496</b>
	%	3.0	7.7	19.2	39.5	30.6	100.0
<b>Explicit</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>116</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>496</b>
	%	3.2	11.1	23.4	34.9	27.4	100.0
<b>Gruesome</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>143</b>	<b>97</b>	<b>496</b>
	%	11.5	14.7	25.4	28.8	19.6	100.0
<b>Highly Arousing</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>169</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>117</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>496</b>
	%	34.1	19.4	23.6	15.5	7.5	100.0

### 5.6.2.3 Attitude Toward the Advertisement

The attitude toward the advertisement refers to the feeling's respondents had toward the ad. The results in Table 5.12 below show out of 496 respondents, 45% found the advertisements slightly and very favourable, 44% found it somewhat to very good, 30% found it slightly and very bad. 49% found the advertisement unpleasant, while 21% found it pleasant and somewhat pleasant, which was expected as the pictures were very graphic. 34% found the advertisement somewhat and very positive, and 33% found it slightly and very negative.

*Table 5.12: Attitude to Advertisement*

Items	Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative %
<b>Unfavourable/Favourable</b>	<b>Very Unfavourable</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>16.9</b>	<b>16.9</b>
	<b>Slightly Unfavourable</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>10.5</b>	<b>27.4</b>
	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>135</b>	<b>27.2</b>	<b>54.6</b>
	<b>Slightly Favourable</b>	<b>137</b>	<b>27.6</b>	<b>82.3</b>
	<b>Very Favourable</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>17.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>
	<b>Total</b>	<b>496</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
<b>Bad/Good</b>	<b>Very Bad</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>16.1</b>	<b>16.1</b>
	<b>Slightly Bad</b>	<b>69</b>	<b>13.9</b>	<b>30.0</b>
	<b>Neither Good or Bad</b>	<b>127</b>	<b>25.6</b>	<b>55.6</b>
	<b>Slightly Good</b>	<b>134</b>	<b>27.0</b>	<b>82.7</b>
	<b>Very Good</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>17.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>
	<b>Total</b>	<b>496</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
<b>Unpleasant/Pleasant</b>	<b>Very Unpleasant</b>	<b>128</b>	<b>25.8</b>	<b>25.8</b>
	<b>Slightly Unpleasant</b>	<b>116</b>	<b>23.4</b>	<b>49.2</b>
	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>144</b>	<b>29.0</b>	<b>78.2</b>
	<b>Slightly Pleasant</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>12.3</b>	<b>90.5</b>
	<b>Very Pleasant</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>9.5</b>	<b>100.0</b>
	<b>Total</b>	<b>496</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
<b>Negative/Positive</b>	<b>Very Negative</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>17.3</b>	<b>17.3</b>
	<b>Slightly Negative</b>	<b>81</b>	<b>16.3</b>	<b>33.7</b>
	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>159</b>	<b>32.1</b>	<b>65.7</b>
	<b>Slightly Positive</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>20.8</b>	<b>86.5</b>
	<b>Very Positive</b>	<b>67</b>	<b>13.5</b>	<b>100.0</b>
	<b>Total</b>	<b>496</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

#### 5.6.2.4 Incongruity/Congruity of the Advertisement

To gauge how participants rated the advertisements, different colours represented three exploratory conditions: green (neutral), orange (mildly shocking), and red (very shocking). Table 5.13 below shows 55% found the very shocking ad to be slightly and very unusual, 60% found the mildly shocking ad to be also unusual, and 40% found it somewhat and very unusual. In terms of ad typicality, 51% found the very shocking ad atypical and 41% found the moderate ad atypical while 34% found the neutral advert typical. A high 47% thought the very shocking ad was slight to very unexpected. Over half of the respondents that saw the very shocking ad thought it was slightly to very relevant, 49% found the mildly shocking ad as appropriate, and 52% found the neutral ad as somewhat to very applicable. 56% found that the mildly shocking ad was also slightly to very unexpected, and a higher percentage of 36% thought the neutral advert was somewhat to very expected. This supports Heckler and Childer's (1992) theory which states that even if an incongruity advertisement is unexpected, there should be relevancy to the product or services it is trying to advertise.

**Table 5.13: Incongruity/Congruity of the Advertisement**

Items	Scale	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Unusual/ Usual	Very Unusual	32	19.4	64	39.0	53	31.7
	Slightly Unusual	34	20.6	34	20.7	38	22.8
	Neither Usual nor Unusual	43	26.1	32	19.5	37	22.2
	Slightly Usual	33	20.0	20	12.2	23	13.8
	Very Usual	23	13.9	14	8.5	16	9.6
	Total	165	100.0	164	100.0	167	100.0
Atypical/ Typical	Very Atypical	26	15.8	57	34.8	38	22.8
	Slightly Atypical	30	18.2	26	15.9	48	28.7
	Neither Typical nor Atypical	52	31.5	45	27.4	36	21.6
	Slightly Typical	36	21.8	15	9.1	26	15.6
	Very Typical	21	12.7	21	12.8	19	11.4
	Total	165	100.0	164	100.0	167	100.0
Irrelevant/ Relevant	Very Irrelevant	24	14.5	28	17.1	24	14.4
	Slightly Irrelevant	11	6.7	18	11.0	11	6.6
	Neither Relevant nor Irrelevant	44	26.7	37	22.6	47	28.1
	Slightly Relevant	47	28.5	43	26.2	42	25.1
	Very Relevant	39	23.6	38	23.2	43	25.7
	Total	165	100.0	164	100.0	167	100.0
Unexpected/ Expected	Very Unexpected	21	12.7	51	31.1	39	23.4
	Slightly Unexpected	22	13.3	40	24.4	39	23.4
	Neither Expected nor Unexpected	62	37.6	41	25.0	47	28.1
	Slightly Expected	35	21.2	17	10.4	22	13.2
	Very Expected	25	15.2	15	9.1	20	12.0
	Total	165	100.0	164	100.0	167	100.0

#### 5.6.2.5 Behavioural Intentions

Questions were asked to participants to see what their actions would be after viewing advertisements on fights, alcoholic drinks consumption, and telling friends and families to refrain from such behaviours. The table below (see Table 5.14) shows 67% of respondents said the advertisements would make them want to protect themselves from violent situations. We found 53% of respondents reported they would think about their alcohol intake while on holiday. Further, 63% reported they would think about the consequences of their actions, 52% would recommend family and friends not engage in violent altercations, and 59% would recommend friends and family to think about the consequences of their actions.

**Table 5.14: Behavioural Intentions**

		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree/Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
<b>Protect myself from violence</b>	Count	17	28	119	167	165	496
	%	3.4	5.6	24.0	33.7	33.3	100.0
<b>Think about my alcohol consumption</b>	Count	42	57	134	154	109	496
	%	8.5	11.5	27.0	31.0	22.0	100.0
<b>Think about likely consequences my action</b>	Count	30	33	119	176	138	496
	%	6.0	6.7	24.0	35.5	27.8	100.0
<b>Recommend to FF to avoid violent situations</b>	Count	29	32	128	163	144	496
	%	5.8	6.5	25.8	32.9	29.0	100.0
<b>Recommend to FF to think about consequences of action</b>	Count	26	37	139	152	142	496
	%	5.2	7.5	28.0	30.6	28.6	100.0

#### 5.6.2.6 Intentions to Visit

The likelihood to visit a destination is an essential way to assess the effectiveness of a destination advertising campaign. Having good knowledge of a destination impacts tourists' intentions to visit the destination (Ahmad *et al.*, 2017). From the frequency table below (see Table 5.15), out of 496 respondents, most respondents (39.1%) were neutral in terms of recommending the destination after viewing the advertisement and few respondents (17.9%) reported they would say negative things after seeing the ads.

**Table 5.15: Intention to Visit Destination**

		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree/Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
<b>Say positive things about destination</b>	Count	63	69	196	114	54	496
	%	12.7	13.9	39.5	23.0	10.9	100.0
<b>Recommend the destination</b>	Count	59	71	194	104	68	496
	%	11.9	14.3	39.1	21.0	13.7	100.0
<b>Visit the destination</b>	Count	64	71	178	110	73	496
	%	12.9	14.3	35.9	22.2	14.7	100.0

### 5.6.3 Reliability Analysis

Reliability is the capability of the measurement tool to generate identical results when repeated (Gartner *et al.*, 2015). Essentially, it means the repeatability of the measurements used to research and achieve comparable results. Reliability echoes consistency and replicability over time. The more errors found when the reliability assessment is done, the more unreliable it is. Even so, reliability is not measured but estimated. Reliability works hand in hand with validity. Messick (1989) redefined reliability as a part of efficacy and that it contributes to the overall construct validity. Table 5.16 shows the attributes of reliability.

*Table 5.16: Attributes of Reliability (Heale and Twycross, 2015, p.67)*

Attributes	Description
<b>Homogeneity (or internal consistency)</b>	<b>The extent to which all the items on a scale measure one construct</b>
<b>Stability</b>	<b>The consistency of results using an instrument with repeated testing</b>
<b>Equivalence</b>	<b>Consistency among responses of multiple users of an instrument, or among alternate forms of an instrument</b>

Internal consistency (homogeneity) is measured using “item-to-total relationship, split-half reliability, Kuder-Richardson coefficient and Cronbach’s  $\alpha$ ” (Heale and Twycross, 2015, p. 66). The split-reliability is when the outcome of a test is shared in two and correlations are then assessed by likening both halves to see if they compare. Strong relationships show high reliability and vice versa. The Kuder-Richardson test can be done by averaging all split-half combinations to achieve a correlation between 0 and 1. This can be done with questions with only two options as answers. For all tests of internal consistency, Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  is frequently employed, and it involves the averages of all the split halves, but here questions with more options can be used. The result is usually 0 and 1, but an excellent reliability score is between 0.7 and 1. In this study, the Cronbach’s test was conducted for all measurements (see Table 5.17). All constructs used in this study show ethical reliability values well above the acceptable level of 0.7.

*Table 5.17: Reliability of Measures*

Construct	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	C.Alpha
<b>Attributes of Shock Ad</b>	<b>8</b>			<b>.859</b>
<b>In1 (scary)</b>		<b>3.44</b>	<b>1.21</b>	
<b>In2 (frightening)</b>		<b>3.42</b>	<b>1.23</b>	
<b>In3 (vivid)</b>		<b>3.84</b>	<b>1.01</b>	
<b>In4 (Intense)</b>		<b>3.95</b>	<b>1.02</b>	
<b>In5 (Powerful)</b>		<b>3.86</b>	<b>1.04</b>	



In6 (Explicit)		3.72	1.09	
In7 (Gruesome)		3.30	1.27	
In8 (Highly arousing)		2.43	1.29	
Attitude to Shock Ad	4			.863
Aad1 (Unfavourable/Favourable)		3.18	1.32	
Aad2 (Bad/Good)		3.15	1.31	
Aad3 (Unpleasant/Pleasant)		2.56	1.26	
Aad4 (Negative/Positive)		2.96	1.27	
Incongruity of Ad	4			.863
Cad1 (Atypical/Typical)		2.70	1.33	
Cad2 (Unusual/Usual)		2.54	1.34	
Cad3 (Irrelevant/Relevant)		3.35	1.35	
Cad4 (Unexpected/Expected)		2.73	1.29	
Behavioural Intentions	5			.905
Bi1 (protect myself from violent situations)		3.87	1.05	
Bi2 (think about the amount of alcohol that I would consume while on holiday)		3.46	1.19	
Bi3(think about the likely consequences of my action)		3.71	1.13	
Bi4(recommend to my friends and families to avoid violent situations)		3.69	1.12	
Bi5(recommend to my friends and families to think of the consequences of their actions)		3.73	1.12	
Intention to visit	3			.922
Pd1 (Say positive things)		3.05	1.15	
Pd2 (Recommend destination)		3.10	1.17	
Pd3 (Visit destination in future)		3.11	1.21	

A single item assessed level of shock and asked participants how shocking the ad they witnessed was. Attitudes were assessed with 4 items ( $\alpha = .863$ ). Perceived incongruity was assessed with 4 items ( $\alpha = .859$ ) related to the originality and relevance. Attributes of the shock advertisements were assessed with 8 items ( $\alpha = .863$ ) related to the appropriateness of the ad. Behavioral intentions were assessed with 5 items ( $\alpha = .905$ ) related to the conscious decision to carry out behaviors in the future. Intentions to visit were assessed with 3 items ( $\alpha = .922$ ) related to how likely participants were to visit a destination.

#### 5.6.4 Hypothesis Testing

##### 5.6.4.1 Correlation Testing

Correlation studies are a useful tool for hypothesis testing in various areas of research such as health and social sciences (Moltchanova *et al.*, 2017). Correlations quantify the power of the linear association between two variables. It can vary from a negative relationship (-1) to a perfect positive relationship (1). Correlations assess the tenacity and route of the connection between the variables. The closer to the ideal relationship (-1 or 1), the stronger the correlation. A relationship of 0 between two variables is deemed weak. We represent the correlation coefficient by '*r*'.

The value of "*r*" differs as follows:

- When “*r*” is near 1: This situation indicates there is a substantial linear relationship between two variables. Therefore, it implies if there is an alteration in one variable, it would affect the other variable.
- When “*r*” is close to 0: In this scenario, there is a weak linear relationship between two variables. That is, the two variables are not correlated.
- When the value of “*r*” is precisely 0: There is no linear relationship.
- Finally, when “*r*” is close to -1: There is a perfect downhill negative direct relationship between two variables.

Once composite variables were created, correlations between study variables were assessed and are shown in Table 5.18. Shock was positively correlated with incongruity ( $r = 0.67, p < .001$ ) and behavioral intentions ( $r = 0.32, p < .001$ ), and negatively correlated with attitude ( $r = -0.18, p < .001$ ) and attributes ( $r = -0.16, p < .001$ ). Incongruity was negatively correlated with attitudes ( $r = -0.11, p = .017$ ) and attributes ( $r = -0.11, p = .012$ ), and positively correlated with behavioral intentions ( $r = 0.37, p < .001$ ). Attitudes were positively correlated with attributes ( $r = 0.53, p < .001$ ), behavioral intentions ( $r = 0.13, p = .003$ ), and intentions to visit ( $r = 0.30, p < .001$ ). Attributes were positively correlated with behavioral intentions ( $r = 0.16, p < .001$ ) and intentions to visit ( $r = 0.29, p < .001$ ). Finally, behavioral intentions were positively correlated with intentions to visit ( $r = 0.32, p < .001$ ).

*Table 5.18: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations with Confidence Intervals*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5
Shock	6.62	2.75					
Incongruity	3.50	0.80	.67** [.62, .72]				
Attitude	2.97	1.08	-.18** [-.26, -.09]	-.11* [-.19, -.02]			
Attributes	2.84	1.11	-.16** [-.24, -.07]	-.11* [-.20, -.03]	.53** [.47, .59]		
Behavioural Intentions	3.70	0.95	.32** [.24, .40]	.37** [.29, .44]	.13** [.04, .22]	.16** [.08, .25]	
Intentions to Visit	3.09	1.09	-.04 [-.12, .05]	.05 [-.04, .14]	.30** [.22, .38]	.29** [.21, .37]	.32** [.24, .40]

---

*Note.* *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. The confidence interval is a plausible range of population correlations that could have caused the sample correlation (Cumming, 2014). \* indicates  $p < .05$ . \*\* indicates  $p < .01$ .

Based on the ad respondents witnessed, the researcher expected the level of shock would differ, acting as a manipulation check. Thus, we evaluated this with a one-way ANOVA, where the dependent variable was level of shock, and the independent variable was the ad witnessed. Then we ran an ANOVA test to check whether the difference in shocking perception levels (neutral, medium, and strong) were statistically significant.

ANOVA is an abbreviation for analysis of variance, and as the term suggests, it is variance analysis. It is also known as the *F*-test. ANOVA's primary function is to compare the means of two or more groups. ANOVA helps predict one dependent variable based on one or more predictor variables. It also aims to find whether the predictable variables are good indicators. ANOVA is a statistical tool widely used for analysing data derived from experiments (Miller, 1997) and comparing the sample (Tarlow, 2015). It is used to test the hypothesis and variables that are calculated from the residual quadratic sum (Lind, 2006). ANOVA is also useful as an exploratory tool and to check whether the difference between the sample means is due to variability or are significant. ANOVA can also be used to compare the different attitudes or behaviours in individuals and tests whether they are the same or dependent on other variables. This research examined tourist behaviour and the effect shock advertising may have on curtailing misconduct, so it was deemed an appropriate analytical tool. ANOVA is more effective than the *t*-test because it can test all mean differences at once rather than one pair at a time, thereby reducing the likelihood of type 1 error (in which one falsely deduces the samples are populations with different means; Tarlow, 2015).

According to Cardinal and Aitken (2006), for one to use ANOVA, the following steps must be completed: 1) "identifying your dependent variable, 2) identifying your predictor variables, 3) establishing your predictor variables (e.g., gender-male/female or continuous covariates) are discrete, 4) establishing whether your predictor variables are within-subjects or between-subjects, 5) identifying your design strategy, 6) checking all your assumptions are met, 7) running the ANOVA test, 8) adjusting your degrees of freedom (*df*) for within-subjects' factors for assumption called sphericity, and 9) interpreting the data." (p. 6).

ANOVA is commonly used in the statistical analysis of shock appeals (Cockrill and Parsonage, 2016; Dahl *et al.*, 2003; Engelbart *et al.*, 2017; Urwin and Venter, 2014). Before results can be successfully interpreted as valid and reliable, some assumptions must be met. These assumptions are listed below.

#### Assumptions

- Normality: It assumes the data are typically distributed.
- The validity of the structural model: It assumes the structural model is an accurate description of the data.
- Homogeneity of variance: The samples must be generated from a population with common variations.
- Independence of observation or error components: The error is independent and not correlated. It can be met through random selection (Keppel and Zedeck, 1989).

Nevertheless, if these assumptions are not met, it is commonly known that the ANOVA test can be biased and unreliable (Blanca *et al.*, 2018). Although ANOVA *F*-tests are an effective way of predicting tests of mean equality in-between subjects' designs, researchers should be aware that its validity and reliability is dependent on the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance (Keselman *et al.*, 1998).

There are three ways in which researchers can employ ANOVA, depending on the research design. There is the one-way ANOVA, two-way ANOVA, and N-way Multivariate ANOVA. A one-way ANOVA involves one between-subject factor only, and there is usually one independent variable and more than two groups. In a between-subjects ANOVA, there are "three sources of variability: treatment effects, individual differences, and experimental error" (Tanguma, 1999, p. 243). One-way ANOVA is commonly used in statistics for testing the equivalence of three or more means in behavioural research (Kieffer *et al.*, 2001). When there are two independent variables, this is referred to as a two-way ANOVA. It can be applied when one wants to see the effect of one factor over the other or the correlation between the two independent variables. Finally, the N-way Multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA), as the name implies, is when more than two independent variables are used for comparison. ANOVA calculations are usually done on the sums of squares (which is the sum of the squared deviations of mean) and the degrees of freedom (Aitken and Cardinal, 2006).

This research employed one-way ANOVA because there was only one independent variable (i.e., perceived level of shock) and we examined its effect on other variables. One of the main advantages of the one-way ANOVA is its simplicity, as it offers the researcher an analytical tool for showing the relationship and correlation between variables. However, due to its simplicity, it may be too basic at times and affect the value of the analysis. For instance, respondents' perceived level of shock could affect their intention to visit a destination, yet other aspects of the destination such as climate and cost would go untested. Overall, knowing the measured variables would provide insight into the use of shock advertising in the tourism industry and how it may be used as DMs' communication tool to combat tourists' misconduct.

The independent *t*-test (one way ANOVA) is a parametric test based on the normal distribution. Therefore, we assumed the sampling distribution was normally distributed. Moreover, since the independent *t*-test is used to test different groups of people, we also assumed the homogeneity of variance, or variations in these groups, were roughly equal.

A one-way ANOVA is employed to establish if there are any statistically significant variations amongst the means of two or more independent (unrelated) groups. The researcher used a level of significance of 0.05 in the ANOVA analysis, so there would be a significant relationship if the *t* statistic *p*-value was less than .05. Should the one-way ANOVA find a statistically significant result, the alternative hypothesis is accepted, because this finding would suggest there are at least two group means that are statistically significantly different from each other. The one-way ANOVA is an omnibus test statistic and cannot tell which specific groups were statistically significantly different from each other. Homogeneity of variances was tested with Levene's statistic and no violation was found ( $F[2, 493] = 2.13, p = .119$ ). Normality was tested with the Shapiro-Wilk test and was violated for the neutral ad ( $W = .94, df = 165, p < .001$ ), mildly shocking ad ( $W = .86, df = 164, p < .001$ ), and the very shocking ad ( $W = .88, df = 167, p < .001$ ).

The researcher expected the level of shock would differ based on the ad respondents witnessed, acting as a manipulation check. We evaluated this using a one-way ANOVA, where the dependent variable was level of shock, and the independent variable was the ad witnessed. A one-way The researcher used a level of significance of 0.05 in the ANOVA analysis, meaning that there would be a significant relationship if the *p*-value of the *t* statistic were less than the level of significance value. fThe one-way ANOVA is an omnibus test statistic and cannot tell which specific groups were statistically significantly different from each other. Homogeneity of variances was tested with Levene's statistic, and no violation was found (Levene Statistic (2, 493) = 2.13, *p* = .119). Normality was tested with the Shapiro-Wilk test and was found to be violated for the neutral ad

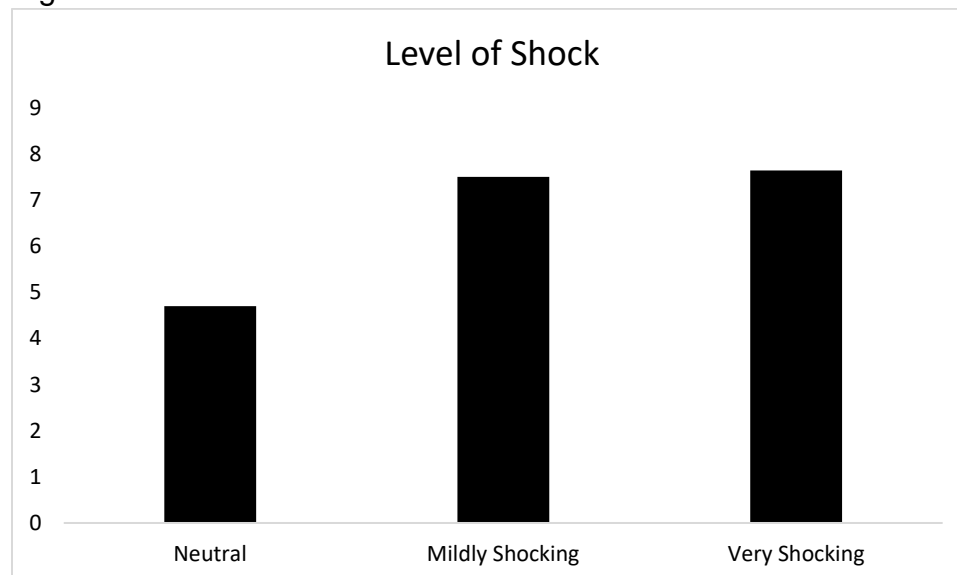
( $W = .94$ ,  $df = 165$ ,  $p < .001$ ), mildly shocking ad ( $W = .86$ ,  $df = 164$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and the very shocking ad ( $W = .88$ ,  $df = 167$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

*Table 5.19: One-way ANOVA Results Showing Differences in Level of Shock Between Ads*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	907.326	2	453.663	78.644	.000
Within Groups	2843.892	493	5.769		
Total	3751.218	495			

There were differences in level of shock between groups depending on the ad seen,  $F(2,493) = .78.64$ ,  $p < .001$  (Table 5.20). Because normality was violated, this analysis also corroborated the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test ( $p < .001$ ). Post hoc analyses were conducted with Bonferroni corrections to assess for the multiple tests conducted. The neutral ad ( $M = 4.70$ ,  $SD = 2.48$ ) was significantly less shocking compared to the mildly shocking ad ( $M = 7.50$ ,  $SD = 2.39$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and the very shocking ad ( $M = 7.64$ ,  $SD = 2.33$ ,  $p < .001$ ; in Figure 5.3). However, there was no difference in level of shock between the mildly shocking ad and the very shocking ad ( $p = 1.000$ ). Thus, all future analyses combined the mildly shocking and very shocking ads into a shocking ad group and conducted exploratory research to assess differences between the shocking and not shocking ads.

*Figure 5.3: Level of Shock for Each of the Ads Presented*



#### 5.6.4.2 Research Question 1

This research question addressed DMs' comprehension and use of shock advertising in their marketing and management strategies. This question was assessed in the qualitative section of this study (see Chapter 4) and acted as a baseline for the quantitative aspect, as DMs were keen to find out tourists' reaction if they employed shock tactics.

#### 5.6.4.3 Research Question 2

##### 5.6.4.3.1 Hypothesis 1 and 3

Research Question 2 assessed what tourists' attitudes toward shock advertisements were. This was done by assessing the means and standard deviations of respondent attitudes, attributes, and congruity of the ad, along with behavioral intentions and intentions to visit, shown in Table 5.20.

*Table 5.20: Means, Standard Deviation, and Significance of Each Attitudinal and Behavioural Outcomes from Witnessing the Neutral Ad and Shocking Ad*

	Neutral		Shocking		Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD	
Attitude	3.20	0.95	2.85	1.13	.002
Attribute	3.10	1.06	2.71	1.11	.001
Incongruity	2.91	0.77	3.79	0.64	.001
Behavioral Intentions	3.56	0.93	3.77	0.96	.023
Intentions to Visit	3.13	0.99	3.07	1.14	.675

Hypothesis 1 posited the perceived level of shock would significantly influence attitudes toward the advertisement and Hypothesis 3 posited violent appeals (i.e., mildly, and extremely shocking) would lead to a more significant negative attitude toward the advertisement than nonviolent appeals (AD 1). Independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to assess for differences between the neutral ads and the shock ads because the dependent variables are continuous, and the independent variable is dichotomous. An independent samples *t*-test is an inferential statistical test that verifies if there is a statistically significant variation amongst the means in two unrelated groups. The *t*-test is a parametric test and thus, the assumption is tested. It can be used to compare the means between two groups only. A reasonably large sample size ensured a *t*-test was plausible. Finally, normality and homogeneity of variances were checked for each analysis, and when violated, nonparametric tests were run to corroborate results.

*Table 5.21: Independent Samples T-Test Results Assessing Differences in Attitudes Based on Ad*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means
--	---	------------------------------

		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff	95% CI	
										Lower Upper
Attitude	Equal var ass.	7.475	.006	3.373	494	.001	.34501	.10227	.14407	.54595
	Equal var not ass.			3.580	384.212	.000	.34501	.09637	.15554	.53448

Table 5.22: Independent Samples T-Test Results Assessing Differences in Attributes Based on Ad

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff	95% CI	
										Lower Upper
Attributes	Equal var ass	1.305	.254	3.694	494	.000	.38549	.10436	.18045	.59053
	Equal var not ass			3.755	342.39	.000	.38549	.10267	.18355	.58743

Table 5.23: Independent Samples T-Test Results Assessing Differences in Incongruity Based on Ad

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff	95% CI	
										Lower Upper
Incongruity	Equal Var ass	4.547	.033	-13.599	494	.000	-.88775	.06528	-1.0160	-.75948
	Equal Var not ass			-12.782	279.55	.000	-.88775	.06945	-1.0244	-.75103

An independent samples *t*-test was conducted to compared attitudes between those who witnessed the neutral ad and those who witnessed the shock ads. A significant difference was noted,  $t(494) = 3.37$ ,  $p = .001$  (Table 5.21). However, there was a significant difference in equality of variances ( $F = 7.48$ ,  $p = .006$ ) and a violation of normality for the neutral ad ( $W = .97$ ,  $df = 165$ ,  $p = .002$ ) and shock ad ( $W = .95$ ,  $df = 331$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Thus, this was checked against a nonparametric Mann-Whitney Test. The results were corroborated,  $U = 22610.50$ ,  $p = .002$ , so we have evidence that the shock ad has significantly fewer positive attitudes compared to the neutral ad.



Next, we conducted an independent samples *t*-test to compare attributes of those who witnessed the neutral ad to attitudes of those who viewed the shock ad. Levene's test was not violated ( $F = 1.31, p = .254$ ), indicating equality of variances. We found evidence for a significant difference between the neutral ad and shock ads in terms of attributes,  $t(494) = 3.69, p < .001$  (Table 5.22). However, normality was violated for the neutral ad ( $W = .97, df = 165, p = .001$ ) and shocking ad ( $W = .96, df = 331, p < .001$ ), thus this was checked against a nonparametric Mann-Whitney Test. The results were corroborated,  $U = 21449.00, p < .001$ , so we have evidence that participants rated the neutral ad as having more positive attributes than the shock ads.

Finally, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted to compare incongruity between those who witnessed the neutral ad and those who witnessed the shock ads, and a significant difference emerged,  $t(494) = -13.60, p < .001$  (Table 5.23). However, there was a significant difference in equality of variances ( $F = 4.55, p = .033$ ) and in violation of normality for the neutral ad ( $W = .98, df = 165, p = .041$ ) and shock ad ( $W = .97, df = 331, p < .001$ ), thus this was checked against a nonparametric Mann-Whitney Test. The results were corroborated,  $U = 10014.00, p < .001$ , so we have evidence that the shock ad was perceived as significantly more incongruent than the neutral ad.

Thus, findings for hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 3 were confirmed, such that there were significant differences in attitudes, attributes, and incongruity between the neutral ad and the shock ad.

#### 5.6.4.3.2 Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 explored whether the perceived congruity level impacted attitudes toward the ad and behavioral intentions. Simple linear regressions were conducted to evaluate these relationships because the independent variable and dependent variables were all continuous. Linear regression was used to predict the value of a variable based on the value of another variable. It attempted to model the relationship between two variables by fitting a linear equation to observed data.

**Table 5.24:** Simple Linear Regression Results Assessing the Impact of Incongruity on Attitudes Toward the Ad

	Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	3.476	.217		16.016	.000
	Incongruity	-.145	.060	-.107	-2.399	.017

A simple linear regression was conducted to assess whether incongruity predicted attitudes about the ad. The researcher used a level of significance of 0.05 in the linear regression analysis, so a significant relationship would emerge if the *t*-statistic *p*-value was less .05. Incongruity predicted attitudes,  $\beta = -0.15$ ,  $F(1,494) = 5.76$ ,  $p = .017$ ,  $R^2 = 0.01$ , with 1% of the variance in predicting attitudes captured. As perceptions of incongruity increased, positive attitudes about the ad decreased (see Table 5.24).

*Table 5. 25: Simple Linear Regression Results Assessing the Impact of Incongruity on Behavioural Intentions*

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
1 (Constant)	3.387	.222		15.273	.000
Incongruity	-.157	.062	-.113	-2.533	.012

A simple linear regression was conducted to assess whether incongruity predicted attributes about the ad. The researcher used a level of significance of 0.05 in the linear regression analysis, so a significant relationship would emerge if the *t*-statistic *p*-value was less than .05. Incongruity predicted attributes,  $\beta = -0.16$ ,  $F(1,494) = 6.42$ ,  $p = .012$ , with an  $R^2$  of 0.01, capturing 1% variance in predicting attributes. As perceptions of incongruity increased, positive attributions about the ad decreased (see Table 5.25).

*Table 5. 26: Simple Linear Regression Results Assessing the Impact of Incongruity on Behavioural Intentions*

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
1 (Constant)	2.168	.179		12.143	.000
Incongruity	.438	.050	.368	8.798	.000

A simple linear regression was conducted to assess whether incongruity predicted behavioral intentions. The researcher used a level of significance of 0.05 in the linear regression analysis, so a significant relationship would emerge if the *t*-statistic *p*-value was less than .05. Incongruity predicted behavioral intentions,  $\beta = 0.37$ ,  $F(1,494) = 77.41$ ,  $p < .001$ , with an  $R^2$  of 0.14, or capturing 14% of the variance in predicting behavioral intentions. As perceptions of incongruity increased, behavioral intentions increased (see Table 5.26).

Thus, we had confirmation for hypothesis 4 that incongruity levels predicted lower attitudes, lower attributes, and higher behavioral intentions.

#### 5.6.4.4 Research Question 3

##### 5.6.4.4.1 Hypothesis 2 and 2a

Research Question 3 assessed how tourists' behavioral intentions changed depending on the level of shock ad witnessed.

**Table 5.27:** Independent Samples T-Test Results Assessing Differences in Behavioural Intentions Based on Ad

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff	95% CI	
									Lower	Upper
Behavioral Intention	Equal variances assumed	.077	.78	-2.277	494	.023	-.20616	.09052	-.3840	-.0283
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.302	337.35	.022	-.20616	.08955	-.3823	-.0300

Hypothesis 2 explored differences in behavioral intentions based on the degree of violence witnessed, where an ad with greater violence (i.e., higher shock) would predict more positive behavioral intentions. We conducted an independent samples *t*-test to compare behavioral intentions between those who witnessed the neutral ad and those who viewed the shock ad. Levene's test was not violated ( $F = 0.08$ ,  $p = .782$ ) indicating an equality of variances. We found evidence for a significant difference between the neutral ad and shock ads in terms of behavioral intentions,  $t(494) = -2.28$ ,  $p = .023$  (see Table 5.27). However, normality was violated for the neutral ad ( $W = .96$ ,  $df = 165$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and shocking ad ( $W = .93$ ,  $df = 331$ ,  $p < .001$ ), thus this was checked against a nonparametric Mann-Whitney Test. The results were corroborated,  $U = 23340.00$ ,  $p = .008$ , so we have evidence that the witnesses to the neutral ad had more positive behavioral intentions compared those who witnessed the shock ads, supporting hypothesis 2.

We also chose to look at the mildly and very shocking ads separately in Hypothesis 2a by performing a correlation analysis to better understand the results. The correlation between mildly shocking ads and behavioural intentions indicated a weak positive relationship ( $r = .08$ ,  $p = .05$ ).

Therefore, there was a marginally significant correlation between the degree of violence (mildly shocking ads) and behavioural intentions. Hence, the alternative hypothesis was confirmed, such that the degree of violence portrayed in the ad would be positively associated with behavioural intention, namely the mildly shocking violent ad would lead to the most positive behavioural intent.

*Table 5.28. Correlation between Behavioural Intentions and Mild and Very Shocking Advertisements*

		Correlations		
		BI	Mildly Shocking	Extremely Shocking
BI	Pearson Correlation	1	.088*	.014
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.050	.758
	N	496	496	496
Mildly Shocking	Pearson Correlation	.088*	1	-.501**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.050		.000
	N	496	496	496
Very Shocking	Pearson Correlation	.014	-.501**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.758	.000	
	N	496	496	496
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).				
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				

Table 5.28 above demonstrates a weak positive relationship between the degree of violence (very shocking ads) and behavioural intentions ( $r = .014$ ,  $p = .758$ ). Therefore, there was an insignificant correlation between the degree of violence (very shocking ads) and behavioral intentions. Hence, the null hypothesis was accepted, such that the degree of violence portrayed in the ad (very shocking ads) was not positively associated with behavioural intention.

#### 5.6.4.5 Research Question 4

##### 5.6.4.5.1 Hypothesis 5

Research Question 4 assessed how tourists' intentions to visit the destination changed depending on the level of shock ad witnessed.

*Table 5.29: Independent Samples T-Test Results Assessing Differences in Intentions to Visit Based on Ad*

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff	95% CI	
Intention to Visit	Equal variance ass	3.893	.049	.554	494	.580	.05779	.10423	-.1470	.26259
	Equal variance not ass			.580	370.63	.562	.05779	.09956	-.1379	.25356

Hypothesis 5 explored differences in intentions to visit based on the degree of violence witnessed. We conducted an independent samples *t*-test to compare intentions to visit of those who witnessed the neutral ad versus the shock ad. No significant differences were found,  $t(494) = 0.55$ ,  $p = .580$  (see Table 5.29). However, there was a significant difference in equality of variances ( $F = 3.89$ ,  $p = .049$ ) and violation of normality for the neutral ad ( $W = .96$ ,  $df = 165$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and shock ad ( $W = .95$ ,  $df = 331$ ,  $p < .001$ ), thus this was checked against a nonparametric Mann-Whitney Test. The results were corroborated,  $U = 26683.50$ ,  $p = .675$ , so we have evidence there were no significant differences in intentions to visit between the shock ad and the neutral ad, disconfirming hypothesis 5. That is, shock ads were found to have no impact on the intentions of tourists to visit the destination. This finding implies shock ads would not discourage tourists from visiting the destination.

## **5.7 Conclusion**

This chapter presented the second part of the quantitative analysis and findings. It started with an overview of the introductory questions and then the preliminary analysis of the data. The primary analysis was done in two parts: first, the correlations between the variables were tested; second, the ANOVA test was conducted to ascertain the general worthiness of the regression model. Individually, regression coefficients were found to not equate to zero. Chapter 6 discusses the findings and relates them to the schema incongruity theory and objectives.

## **CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION**

### **6.0 Introduction**

Chapter 5 showed the analysis of the relationship between the various variables and hypotheses testing with ANOVA and other statistical instruments. In this chapter, the findings in the quantitative and qualitative research and their implications concerning the framework that was used are discussed. After a summary of the findings from the qualitative and quantitative analysis, the investigation of the results relative to prior literature will be highlighted. The responses to shock advertising will be addressed in relation to the schema incongruity model and the research objectives and questions will be analysed with a bid to ascertaining whether they have been met. This chapter concludes with a summary of the discussion.

### **6.1 Summary of the Findings: Qualitative Stage**

The key findings from DMs, following a thematic inductive approach are:

- DMs understood the concept of shock advertising.
- DMs had a clear understanding of the benefits and shortfalls of using shock advertising as a strategy.
- DMs use shock advertising but to a minimal degree or not all.
- DMs are sceptical about using shock advertising because of barriers faced in its application.
- DMs understood that some factors influence the use of shock advertising.
- Annoying tourists' behaviours prevail in all the destinations.
- DMs believed shock advertisements could be a useful tool in creating awareness and deterring problematic tourist behaviours.
- DMs expressed shock advertisement can affect the destination image positively, negatively, or both.
- DMs were keen to measure the effectiveness of advertising campaigns.

## 6.2. Summary of Findings: Quantitative Stage

Table 6.1 below highlights the results of the hypothesis testing.

*Table 6.1: Breakdown of Hypothesis Testing*

Label	Hypothesis	Results
H1	The perceived level of shock has a significant influence on the attitude towards the advertisement.	Supported
H2	The degree of violence portrayed in the ad would be positively associated with behavioural intention, namely the most violent ad would lead to the most positive behavioural intentions.	Not Supported
H2a	The degree of violence portrayed in the ad would be positively associated with behavioural intention, namely mildly violent ad would lead to the most positive behavioural intentions.	Supported
H3	Violent appeals (Mildly and Extremely Shocking) would lead to a more significant negative attitude towards the advertisement than non-violent appeal (AD 1).	Supported
H4	The perceived congruity level has an impact on behavioural Intentions and attitude towards the ad.	Supported
H5	The degree of violence has a significant influence on the intention to visit.	Not Supported

## 6.3 Discussion of Findings

One main aim of this research was to investigate the use of shock advertising and the role it plays in discouraging tourists' misconduct. It examined tourists' perceptions and responses to assess their attitudes and behavioural intentions after viewing the shock ads.

In addition to determining whether shock advertisements in the tourism context are useful, there also arose the need to adequately understand how they should be designed for maximum impact. The results of the hypothesis testing are presented in Chapter 6—most were supported (see Table 6.1 above). They indicated shock tactics were effective in generating the necessary behavioural and attitude change, supporting prior research in this area (Dahl *et al.*, 2003; Dens *et al.*, 2008; Miller *et al.*, 2007). For instance, emotionally provocative advertisements have been found to reduce smoking (Durkin *et al.*, 2009). Stautz and Marteau (2016) also supported these findings and found respondents who viewed warning advertisements were more likely to have fewer drinks than those who saw typical alcoholic or non-alcoholic ads.

Regardless, there is some conflicting research. For example, Lull and Bushman (2015) proposed violent media content had no significant effect on brand memory, attitude, and purchasing intentions. It could imply consumers are becoming desensitised to ads containing violence and the attention-grabbing of such advertisements. They suggested brands should focus on other cues such as central and peripheral, or perhaps use mildly shocking themes.

Their argument was this would enhance memory, attitude, and purchase intentions of the brand.

Brands with advertisements that are congruent to the products or services are more likely to be remembered. For instance, a violent game advertisement elicits uncomfortable feelings and can lead to positive cognition and awareness. Though, the review of literature in this research has suggested the incongruity in shock advertisements elicits uncomfortable feelings and can lead to positive cognition, awareness, and purchase intentions.

Studies indicated shock advertisements are powerful tools for generating consciousness in social marketing campaigns. Researchers have argued shock advertisements are more convincing than non-shock ads in gaining attention and altering behaviour (Dahl *et al.*, 2003; Lee *et al.*, 2020). Its incongruent nature challenges norms and culture, thus shocking its audience. Its surprising nature strengthens the increased processing nature of the advertising content.

It is common knowledge that social advertising can arouse different types of emotions in the audience, ranging from guilt, accountability, self-fulfilment, empathy, remorse, and disapproval (Sergeevna *et al.*, 2017). Shock tactics can incite emotional responses in viewers by displaying provocative content that is annoying and upsetting, and this could be in the form of graphic violent content, suffering, and disgusting images.

#### 6.3.1 H1: The Perceived Level of Shock has a Significant Influence on the Attitude Toward the Advertisement

Urwin and Venter (2009) defined the level of shock as varying from large to small. Huhmann and Mott-Stenerson (2008) found if the perceived level of shock were not high enough, it would be insufficient in fulfilling any brand-processing image and goals. Alternatively, if the perceived level of shock is too high, it could irritate or disgust viewers, which in turn may lead to them ignore the product and advertisement (Klara, 2012). Hence, the perceived level of shock needs to be just right for it to produce the desired effect. Despite that, getting this middle ground could be difficult for DMs, and subsequently, a grey area could be created in which it could leave a positive or a negative effect on consumers' attitudes toward the advertisement. This means ads that have the right perceived shock level would significantly impact the audiences' attitudes toward the advertisements.

Advertisers need to take into cognisance the level of their shock tactics, as it is purported the more outrageous the ad is perceived, the higher likelihood the attitude to the advertisement would be negative. This research finding supports Lee *et al.* (2020) who found organisations that market unmentionable products such as condoms and guns can employ shock advertising



as it is unlikely to negatively impact their brand. On the other hand, in promoting socially acceptable goods, it may be wise to use non-shock advertisements or mildly shocking ads to avoid negative dissonance with the destination.

### 6.3.2 H2: The Degree of Violence Portrayed in the Ad Would be Positively Associated With Behavioural Intention, Namely the Most Violent Ad Would Lead to the Most Positive Behavioural Intentions

The impact of the degree of violence in the ads on the audiences' behavioural intentions were assessed. Results showed the highly graphic message did not produce the desired behavioural intentions (see Table 5.28). Thus, the hypothesis was rejected. It could be that in this context, the message was too incongruent and had no relation to tourism. Dens *et al.* (2008) proposed there is no need to use incongruent messages in commercial advertisements as they are better in non-profit organisations in which shock ads are more congruent. Zlatevska and Spence (2012) also supported this and found the portrayal of violence in social advertising only reinforces negative associations with violence for individuals with aggressive tendencies. Hence, they suggested social marketers not use violent images if their aim is to discourage individuals to temper violent predispositions, as it would have a boomerang effect, and advised against the use of violent images in social marketing campaigns.

The use of shock appeals in shock advertising cannot constantly be justified because of ethical and moral violations, as this could have a great effect on the audience and lead to negative consequences (Sergeevna *et al.*, 2017). Although, social marketing is known for helping change behaviours and could play a role in changing unsustainable tourism behaviour, it must be applied in the right context and with care.

### 6.3.3 H2a: The Degree of Violence Portrayed in the Ad Would be Positively Associated with Behavioural Intention, Namely Mildly Violent Ads Would Lead to the Most Positive Behavioural Intentions

The mildly incongruent advertisement seemed to produce the right behavioural intentions. Table 5.28 showed this supports the schema incongruity theory in which mildly incongruent messages induce the appropriate cognition in the audience, resulting in the right behavioural and attitude formation. Dens *et al.* (2008) also proposed using mildly shocking appeals in commercial ads to attracting attention and produce behavioural and attitude change. Shock ads can go beyond getting attention and engage in message-related behaviours (Dahl *et al.*, 2003). Veer and Rank (2012) also found shock pictures and labels were effective in dissuading new smokers from starting the habit and persuading pre-existing smokers to stop. The norm violation in the ads should be applied sensibly, such that consequences of actions can be

shown, and it should be related to the product or service being advertised, so as not to be an attention-grabbing gimmick.

#### 6.3.4 H3: Violent Appeals (Mildly and Extremely Shocking 3) Would Lead to a Greater Negative Attitude Toward the Advertisement than Nonviolent Appeal (AD 1)

It was hypothesised that violent appeals would lead to a significantly more negative attitude toward the ad. This hypothesis was supported, as non-shock images would influence elaboration and viewers would impulsively avoid graphic images with too much blood and injury (Kees *et al.*, 2006). The selective retention perceptual system may explain this finding, in which individuals naturally ignore shock stimuli, since they did not see themselves in that light as they are not playing an active role (Buccoliero *et al.*, 2016).

Lull and Bushman (2015) reviewed the academic literature on advertisements that contain violent content and concluded they weaken brand memory, attitudes, and buying intentions. Regardless, Parry *et al.* (2013) found shock ads can be useful in challenging consumers' attitudes. Other researchers have found no significant differences in responses of audiences between those who were shown shock advertisements compared to those who watched a conventional ad (Urwin and Venter, 2004).

It should be noted not all perfect matching congruency can bring about a positive affective evaluation. There are instances where the polarisation of attitudes may occur (Lee and Schumann, 2004; Tesser and Leone, 1977) or transfer attitude theory (Lee and Schumann, 2004; Novick, 1988). In these situations, individuals refer to the reinforcement of the previous attitude to assimilate the slightly incongruent or congruent schemas with either positive or negative responses depending on prior effect or relationship (Lee and Schumann, 2004). Incongruity can also cause a build-up of tension (Heider, 1958; Lee and Schumann, 2004) and individuals will attempt to relieve the stress, which in turn can bring about positive changes in behaviour and attitude (Lee and Schumann, 2004).

#### 6.3.5 H4: The Perceived Congruity Level has an Impact on Behavioural Intentions and Attitude Toward the Ad

Perceived variables are used in research more to envisage audience responses than understand how the actual manipulation and congruity of the researcher's ads are employed in tourism (Dens and DePelsmacker, 2015). The level of perceived congruity, which is the way the audience sees the ad as congruent with their schema, can affect their attitudes and behavioural intentions (Verberckmoes *et al.*, 2016). They found if awareness was the main aim of the advertiser, it is more beneficial to use incongruent advertisements. Incongruency has a direct and indirect influence on attitudes toward the advertisements and intentions of

the audience. On the other hand, Lewis and Porter (2010) proposed moderate congruency in advertisement offers the best outcome to create awareness and evaluation of the advertisement and destination. However, messages must match with the destination's overall goals, objectives, and strategy so the audience do not ignore or reject the advertisement (Arnaud *et al.*, 2018).

#### 6.3.6 H5: The Degree of Violence has a Significant Influence on the Intention to Visit

The degree of violence did not have a significant influence on the intention to visit. Incongruity in an advertisement may stand out among the crowd, but to elicit positive attitudes, there must be an appreciation of its use in the ad (Yoon, 2013). However, the intention to visit the destination would not change even when the ads are viewed. It may be because of past experiences they have had which has caused them to hold a schema of the destination and relate it to similar locations. For instance, an individual could view all beachside holiday destinations as the same and different from a city holiday destination. These findings could be useful to DMs to use shock tactics to warn tourists against misconduct and not worry about the repercussion of the tourists associating the destination with the advertisement content. By doing so, tourists will still have the intention to visit the destination.

### 6.4. Linking Results With Research Questions

This section shows how the results of both the quantitative and qualitative stages addressed the RQs, as stated in Chapter 1.

- RQ1: How do DMs understand and employ the use of shock advertisements in their advertising campaigns?
- RQ2: What are the tourists' attitudes toward shock advertisements?
- RQ3: How does shock advertising affect tourists' behavioural intentions?
- RQ4: How do shock advertisements affect tourists' intention to visit the destination?

The research examined the knowledge DMs hold about the use of shock advertisement in managing tourists' behaviours and perceptions of the use of such a strategy. To understand this, the researcher interviewed DMs from a wide range of destinations and conducted online and in-person surveys with tourists. Initially, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the DMs to assess their understanding of shock advertisements, the strategies they employed in managing deviant tourist behaviours, and how they felt this could affect their destination image.

DMs identified five key areas during the interview : 1) the ways in which shock advertisements can be used in the tourism sector, 2) the pros and cons of utilising shock advertising tactics, 3) obstacles encountered in its application, 4) perceived effect on tourists' behaviour, and 5) the perceived effect on destination image.

#### 6.4.1 RQ1: How do DMs Understand and Employ the Use of Shock Advertisements in their Advertising Campaigns?

Firstly, most DMs were knowledgeable on ways that shock advertisement could be utilised in their communication campaigns. They were able to recall some of the shock ads that they have come across in recent years. Several DMs confirm that they have applied shock ads in attempting to discourage drug usage, unsafe sexual activities and other actions by tourists that are not beneficial to the host communities. On the other hand, some of the DMs have used it in publicising their destination, as it is commonly known that shock advertisements have the tendency to go viral because of its attention-grabbing features. Dahl *et al.* (2003) supported these findings and Vezina and Paul (1994) found in creating awareness, attention, memory, and attitude and behavioural formation, shock tactics performed better than other styles of advertisements such as fear, information, and conventional ads. When discussing the effectiveness of shock advertising during the interviews, the DMs continuously pointed out it was a strategy that has been successfully employed in many social organisations, such as road safety, smoking, health campaigns, and some commercial organisations such as fashion and automobiles. Parry *et al.* (2013) highlighted the increase in the use of shock advertising in profit and non-profit organisations, like portraying animal cruelty, child abuse, and other social vices. Yet, there is more acceptance of this in the non-profit organisations than for profit, as this has backfired a few times. In terms of road safety, shock ads were found more effective than conventional ads, as they encouraged drivers to stop dangerous behaviours such as texting while driving (Buccoliero *et al.*, 2016).

DMs recounted their knowledge of the effects of using shock advertising. Positive words such as “awareness,” “going viral,” “stands out,” “and grabs attention.” However, terms such as “negative brand image,” “cause offence,” “fear,” “and racism” were employed in discussing the drawbacks of shock advertisements. The incongruent nature and creativity of shock ads makes it unique, startling the audience as it was not anticipated. This surprise gains the audience attention, leading to further expansion and recollection of the advertisement and possibly altering their behaviour.

Shock advertisement is an excellent tool that can be employed to arouse curiosity and raise consciousness of communal issues. Despite the numerous gains of shock advertisements, it

can also be detrimental, especially if it is not applied in the proper scenario, causing uneasiness, and upset thereby estranging the audience.

Advertising is a reliable tool that can create a positive or negative impression of the product, brand, or services in the mind of consumers (Smith and Zook, 2011). Many advertisers avoid using risky strategies, as the repercussions could be enormous. Many marketers question the effectiveness of shock tactics, as what may be shocking to consumers today may not be shocking tomorrow, and the atypical could become the norm. Also, there is the question of “shock fatigue,” a situation where shock tactics are overdone and consumers become used to seeing graphic images, violence, and sexual connotations, thus losing their appeal (MacDonald, 2008).

Several DMs highlighted during the interview that they have employed shock advertising previously although minimally. Nevertheless, many of the DMs were not actively utilising this strategy because of the concern of reverberation, bureaucracy, and uncertainty of the benefits of shock advertising. Some of the DMs related that the strongest reason why they would not employ this strategy was the potential adverse effect on their customer. For example, consumers could refuse to purchase their products or services, file complaints to the regulatory bodies or avoid the ad. Additionally, an obstacle to the use of shock advertising in some emerging economies is that there is stipulation on what and when such advertisements can be shown. Some of the other variables that could affect application of shock advertising are external factors such as access to appropriate resources such as finance, consent from regulatory bodies and high incidents of tourist misbehaviour. Internal influences include innovativeness of employees, funds and backing from senior management (Evans et al., 2019).

Notwithstanding these barriers and adverse effects of employing shock appeal, DMs may want to consider employing shock tactics in their advertising campaign to draw attention to their destination, as fierce competition enables tourists to have a broader choice in their holiday selection. Advertising is steered by ingenuity; hence marketers persist to use creativity tactics such as uncommon depictions and catchy wordings to gain the target audience’s long-term attention and make their content exceptional and unique.

#### 6.4.2 RQ2: What are Tourists’ Attitudes Toward Shock Advertisements?

This research frames the Aad as the tourists’ perception and evaluation of the viewed shock advertisement. Therefore, the higher shocking level respondents perceived, the more it would determine whether they like or dislike the ad. Aad is said to be a proper assessment of measures of attitude and a significant predictor of advertising effectiveness (Wang, 2018). Prior research has found individuals’ bad or good attitudes toward an ad influences their

decision to buy a product or service (Gelb and Pickett, 1984), and other literature has supported this finding. For instance, Vézina and Paul (1997) found consumers held a positive attitude toward shock ads. Even so, they proposed the ads should be mildly shocking and not extremely provocative. In their study on shock ads, Pope *et al.* (2004) also found individuals preferred mildly controversial ads, but they should be congruent with the purpose of the advertisement.

The researcher measured the impact of the perceived level of shock on attitudes toward the advertisement (Aad). Our findings supported the extent to which respondents viewed the ad to be shocking influenced the way they responded to it. It refers to the way they dislike or like the advertisement stimulus (Mowen and Minor, 2001). Participants had more unfavourable responses to shock ads, supporting the research of Veer *et al.* (2008). Although responses to incongruent messages largely depend on their layout and positioning (Cui *et al.*, 2012), many social marketers still advocate for the use of this style of advertising strategy as it creates an atmosphere for debate and helps mould attitudes and behaviours (Parry *et al.*, 2012). Incongruent messages offer advertisers the chance to influence individuals' attitudes (de Mooij 1998). Advertisement stimuli are very likely to create, build, or alter the attitude of the audience, therefore marketers must place emphasis on these facets to promote consumers' positive behavioural attitude (Alabdali, 2009).

#### 6.4.3 RQ3: How Does Shock Advertising Affect Tourists' Behavioural Intention?

In terms of the degree of violence and its effect on behavioural intentions, highly shocking ads have no significance on the behavioural intentions of respondents, so they felt the ad would not make them drink less or stop them from engaging in violence. Findings from Lee *et al.* (2020) support these results, as they found employing shock advertising on socially acceptable products and services would produce negative dissonance toward behavioural and purchase intentions, which may lead to embargos and criticisms.

On the contrary, the slightly incongruent ad had a significant effect on their behavioural intentions. Many authors have supported schema incongruity theory (Dahl *et al.*, 2003; Dens *et al.*, 2008; Pope *et al.*, 2004) which can be helpful for explaining this finding. Shock ads can raise awareness, get attention, and produce a positive behavioural and purchase intention toward the advertisement and message. Advertising can influence attitudes and behavioural intentions (Sunde, 2014), as it has a causal link to behavioural intentions (Mackenzie *et al.*, 1986). Since it is difficult to measure actual behaviour, behavioural intentions are a good predictor of actual conduct (Barber and Taylor, 2013).

Prior literature has indicated there is a positive correlation between Aad and behavioural intentions. Yet, there is minimal research on shock ads (Madni *et al.*, 2016). Ilicic and

Blakemore (2015) also supported this finding as they found mildly controversial ads positively influenced purchase intentions, irrespective of whether the ad was perceived as harmonious or not. Kimber *et al.* (2018) found scary health warnings on e-cigarettes deterred smokers and reduced their intentions to use. Vijayaraghavan *et al.* (2018) also supported this and concluded shocking and threatening labels were effective in reducing exposure to cigarette use and should be used in implementation strategies.

It was hypothesised the perceived congruity level has an impact on behavioural intentions and attitudes toward the ad, and this was supported. This means the way respondents saw a fit advertisement that met their expectations of a tourism ad would have an impact on how likely they would be to drink and engage in violence on holiday. Russell (2002) found consumers were more likely to have a positive attitude towards the ad and message if it was at least moderately congruent within the context of the advertisement. Similarly, Verberckmoes *et al.* (2016), who researched in-game advertisement (IGA) in fantasy games, found for players to have a positive attitude towards the ad and play intention, the IGA must be congruent with the fantasy game environment. Zanjani *et al.* (2011) found the higher the level of congruity between the advertisement and context, the more the ad generated a significant positive assessment and behavioural intentions.

Hence, existing literature and the congruency theory support our findings on the perceived congruity level and attitudes toward the ad and behavioural intentions. However, this is not always the case, as Stautz *et al.* (2017) found no increase in alcohol consumption between respondents that viewed alcohol-promoting ads and those who watched non-alcoholic ads. However, an alternative explanation could be that alcohol-promoting ads have little effect on heavy drinkers and other cues may influence their habits (Stautz *et al.*, 2017). This could also be the case for violence in tourism advertising, such that respondents may be accustomed to seeing violence and are thus desensitised to it. For example, individuals with less exposure to violent content may find such portrayals patently shocking, rejecting, or denounce such behaviours, whereas those desensitised through heavy exposure may feel less offended. Overall, media violence is perceived as relatively non-shocking when compared to other media content such as demeaning sexual depiction of women and sexual representations of children. (Coyne *et al.*, 2016).

#### 6.4.4 RQ4: How Does Shock Advertisements Affect Tourists' Intention to Visit the Destination?

Another significant result was the degree of violence in the advertisement and the intention to visit the destination. It would be of interest to DMs wanting to use shock tactics in their advertising strategy, as it would encourage them to use them, knowing it would not necessarily change the tourists' perceived image of the destination. However, destination advertising plays

a vital role in communicating to tourists and can be used as a tool for DMs to promote their destinations (Byun and Jang, 2015). The warning message and portrayal of violence in the advertisement would not necessarily change the expectations and perceptions of the destination in the minds of the respondents. This is supported by MICG's research, which found the impact of the official marketing campaign of tourism in the UK was minimal and did not have as much impact as the funeral of the Queen's mother (Telegraph, 2002). Govers *et al.* 2007 found any advertising strategy a destination uses will only have a small impact if the significant decision makers, such as DMs, fail to consider other numerous players, such as negative impacts from terrorism, diseases, violence, and other social vices.

## **6.5 Barriers to the Application of Shock Advertisements**

Due to the nature of shock advertising, there is a risk of offending at least some of the audience. To use such a technique, advertisers are advised to engage the viewers with creatively designed ads that will more than likely provoke an emotional response (Belch and Belch, 2003). Some salient issues that hinder the application of shock advertising can be adduced to the regulatory bodies and nongovernmental bodies, consumers, governmental organisations, financial constraints, and the creativity and innovativeness of the staff, discussed briefly below.

### **6.5.1 Regulatory Bodies and Nongovernmental Agencies**

Advertisements are regulated at the local, regional, and national level to control images, wordings, information, and commercial interactions between consumers and organisations. For instance, in the UK, there are over 150 acts of parliament and other regulations such as the Trade Descriptions Act (1968) and The Consumer Protection Act (1987) that voluntarily self-regulate agencies, advertisers, and organisations (Farrell, 2012). Self-regulation is also a common practise in many countries (Harker, 2004). It affords organisations and regulatory bodies the power to make a ruling and to remove advertisement when deemed inappropriate (Shaver, 2003). Other central agencies that control and regulate advertisements and other form of media in the UK are the Office of Communication (Ofcom), Office of Fair Trade (OfT), and ASA. Though these organisations were developed with good intentions to ensure the materials sent out for public consumption are not violating or deceptive, they can sometimes stand in the way of organisations using shock advertisements. For this reason, organisations grapple with the fear of being fined, their adverts being banned, and leaving a negative brand image because of bad press, to name a few. For example, the advertisement of the *Generation Z Apocalypse* "zombie experience" showing the picture of a zombie was banned on the



London Underground as it could cause distress to young children, even though it received only two complaints.

The Advertising Standard Council of India (ASCI) regulates what advertisers can use in its ethical guidelines, including:

- “Advertising should be designed to conform not only to the laws but also to the moral, aesthetic, and religious sentiments of the country in which it is published.
- Advertisements likely to bring contempt or disrepute to the profession should not be permitted.
- The advertisement containing exaggerated claims that inevitably disappoint the public should not be permitted.
- Indecent, vulgar, suggestive, repulsive, or offensive themes or treatment should be avoided” (Sen, 2016, p. 3).

However, this has not hindered shock advertisements from showing in India media, causing protests and outrage within the country. Koszembar-Wiklik (2016) commented legal restrictions and ethical codes advertising bodies formulate are ineffective, stating the forbidden aspect of an advertisement generates more interest on the internet. This, however, does not absolve the advertiser from any responsibility, as they should be morally liable for the information and pictures they disseminate (Kotarbinski, 1986).

#### 6.5.2 Consumers

Mass media usually broadcasts advertisements, whereby potential consumers and broader audience are exposed to information that may shock them without any prior knowledge (Kerr *et al.*, 2009). Advertising facilitates competition in the market, forcing firms to make creative and quality products that can satisfy consumers’ needs. Information is now readily “available to consumers regarding product attributes, quality levels, and prices; in this way, such exposure increases consumer knowledge” (Franke and Taylor, 2017, p. 396). Many marketing theories have purported consumers have the power over manufacturers in terms of their goods and services to choose to buy, ignore, and control their choices about the products offered, and this empowers them (Denegri-Knott and Schroeder, 2006). If consumers find an advertisement annoying, they can decide to block the ad and ignore it, but if they find the ad interesting, they can share it online with friends and talk about it, with the potential of it going viral. According to Kerr *et al.* (2009), like-minded consumers could aggregate online and discuss specific advertising campaigns which could positively or negatively affect the organisation; for example, if they did not like the adverts, they could expose product defaults

and unethical advertising campaigns. Hence, organisations strive to remain in consumers' favour.

Kerr *et al.* (2008, p. 401) proposed four ways in which traditional consumers can exercise their power in advertising:

- "Complain to regulators".
- "Ignore the ad".
- "Boycott the product".
- "Buy the product".

### 6.5.3 Governmental Bodies

Advertising regulation is widespread and comprises governmental rules on product and services such as alcohol, tobacco, drugs, gambling, video games, and a host of other prohibited products and services (Goldfarb and Tucker, 2011). It is suggested that stricter independent regulations and bans of alcohol advertising and sponsorship have been consistently identified as one of the most effective means to reduce the harms and consequences of alcohol (O'Brien and Chikritzhs, 2017). In countries like China (Yang *et al.*, 2012), New Zealand (O'Brien and Chikritzhs, 2017), Australia (Berry *et al.*, 2017), South Africa (Parry *et al.*, 2012), and Japan (Kawane, 1999), there have been outcries for government to ban all advertisements on tobacco, alcohol, and some drugs because of the high incidence of harm and health issues for the populace and the strain it places on taxpayers. In countries like Norway, Iceland, and the Faroe Islands, there was a total ban on all alcohol advertisements. Other European countries have partial bans (Paukšte *et al.*, 2014).

Goldfarb and Tucker (2011) said though governmental bodies' regulations and bans can be useful in reducing viewing exposure to young children (e.g., alcohol advertisement), prohibitions from national agencies are ineffective for regular internet users, as they will substitute offline for online viewing. Kalia (2015) proposed governmental bans, restrictions, and interference with individual and organisation materials can lead to a reduction in creativity. Few governments take regulatory action to prevent the adverse effects associated with tourism, and this may be because it may reduce tourism demand and generated revenue (Juvan and Dolnicar, 2016). Regulations and restrictions from the government, if effectively implemented, can help reduce some of the adverse effects of advertising of controversial products. However, these regulations must not be overdone so advertisers are not afraid to use their creativity.

Another problem the DMs raised was the issue of annoying tourists' behaviours locals and other tourists experienced. The destinations represented in this study such as Cyprus,

Florence, New York, and Tenerife experience the challenging behaviours of tourists more than the smaller destinations, and the DMs reported they were actively seeking solutions to these problems. The smaller or less frequently visited locations focused efforts on promoting their destinations rather than raising awareness of these problems because they do not experience them as much as the more popular destinations.

News of tourists' issues abound. For instance, the Venetian government has recently announced tourists would be fined if caught misbehaving in the city. These fines were introduced after a group of holidaymakers were seen swimming in the canal (Telegraph, 2017). There have been many issues with tourists in many cities across the European Union, such as Barcelona and Majorca, where residents have protested on the increase in accommodation costs and damages to the beach and other natural resources. However, these problems are not unique to European countries. According to Baker (2018), the government in Thailand and the Philippines have had to close some of their beaches because of pollution. Other countries such as Rwanda, Italy, Colombia, Peru, and South Korea have had to restrict the number of visitors that can go to some of the tourist attractions at once, and sometimes have increased the price for visiting the attraction to discourage visitors.

A key finding of the study was that DMs see the way tourists view their location as an indicator of their intention to visit, revisit, or recommend it to their friends and families. Since the DMs aim to attract and promote their location, the way their destination is perceived is a critical factor. Some participants believed shock advertisements could affect the destination image positively, such as raising awareness on issues and global causes that are a concern. Some participants questioned the possible effects of shock advertisements as they reported they might be short lived and create a negative brand and destination image. Also, some of the DMs felt the use of shock appeals might not be appropriate as the audience may see them as a taboo and unethical and therefore see the destination in that light. According to some respondents, the perception of the destination is vital for all major players in the tourism sector, but other factors play a vital role too. For instance, tourists believe hosts' perceptions of the destination could affect destination images, as this knowledge can be transferred to friends and family.

Understanding the role that perceived destination images play on travel decisions or revisit intentions is complex (Oktadiana *et al.*, 2016). It helps guide behaviour and behavioural intentions before, during, and after the trip (Chen *et al.*, 2015), and others or prior schemas of the destination could affect them (Eid and El-Gohary, 2015). To achieve a positive destination image, it is crucial to evaluate how tourists process promotional or informational destination advertising. Hence DMs should note that even though an advertisement can play a role in how

tourists see their destination, there are so many other contributing factors that also play a role. The perceived destination image sums up tourists' expectations of the destination (Govers and Go, 1999).

In the second stage of the exploratory sequential research, a quantitative study was conducted using online and in-person surveys. The study aimed to obtain tourists' perceptions of the use of shock advertising and assess whether this strategy would be useful in changing attitudes and behavioural intentions, and gather their opinions regarding the destination after viewing the ad. It was essential to get the tourists' perceptions of the use of this strategy as this would be presented to DMs with a high incidence of tourists' misconduct and could be used as a management tool. It was also necessary to assess how shock tactics would be applied (e.g., mildly incongruent ads or extremely incongruent ads). Finally, in terms of the shock elements, the researcher was able to determine what tourists found appalling before creating the ads, and this was incorporated into creating shock ads.

## **6.6 Research Objectives**

This section reviews the research aims and objectives stated in Chapter 1 and aims to identify whether the research questions have been answered and to what extent an understanding has been established. The research objectives are as follows:

- RO1: To critically review published literature on shock advertising and its impact on changing attitudes, behaviour intentions, and perceived destination images.
- RO2: To investigate tourists' behaviour and misbehaviour and responses to shock advertising, employing the schema incongruity model.
- RO3: To provide recommendations to DMs on how to implement shock advertising strategies.
- RO4: To provide evidence of the effectiveness of shock advertising on tourists' misconduct in the travel and tourism industry.

### **6.6.1. RO1: To Critically Review Published Literature on Shock Advertising and its Impact on Changing Attitude, Behaviour and Visit Intentions and Perceived Destination Image**

The effectiveness and uniqueness of shock advertising as a means of grasping consumers' attention and behaviours have been well researched (Dahl *et al.*, 2003). Most studies have analysed the role and impact of shock advertising in the health care sector. For instance, Gheorghe *et al.* (2017) researched the effectiveness of shock advertising in discouraging smoking in Romania, safety behaviours (Buccoliero *et al.*, 2016), and environmental protection

(Hartmann *et al.*, 2014). However, studies have shown contradicting results on the effectiveness of the use of shock ads. On one hand, sex appeals have been used since the 1960s and have increased in Western countries, as marketers continue to seek more innovative and creative ways to remain relevant in a competitive environment and increase sales performance (LaTour and Henthorne, 1994). On the other hand, there is contradicting evidence that sex appeals can grab attention, improve attention, increase attention, and increase sales (Reichert *et al.*, 2001). However, regardless of all the potential benefits of sex appeal, there is evidence it can be less beneficial to advertisers who are looking for a rapid rise in sales and highest brand memory (Samson, 2018).

During the research, findings from literatures suggested there were contradicting views on the effectiveness of shock advertisement. It was also found there is scarce research on its use in managing tourists' misconduct. Accordingly, this research examined attitudes toward shock advertisements, behavioural intentions, and the perceived destination image of tourists after viewing shock ads.

The researcher reviewed the unique characteristics of shock advertisements, possible consumer reactions, its uses, and the various appeals it has, and how it has been applied in the tourism industry. It was important to understand its concept and how it can affect consumer behaviour.

The benefits of shock advertisements cannot be understated, as it has been used in many sectors, both public and private. It is however important to apply it in the right context and content, as this is crucial to its success or failure (Christy, 2004). The importance of understanding the attitudes, behaviours, reactions, and emotions of consumers to an advertisement can never be overemphasised, and there is ample research and ongoing studies in this area. Consumers react to ads in different ways—some see the advertisement as a picture while others may see it as an emotion. The surprise element in shock advertisement can positively affect attitudes toward an ad, behaviour intentions, and image of the advertised destination.

#### 6.6.2. RO2: To Investigate Tourists' Behaviour and Misconduct and Responses to Shock Advertising by Employing the Schema Incongruity Model

Although the debate on shock advertising is still open, literature has invested little to no attention on the tourism industry. Several destinations experience terrible, illegal, dangerous tourism behaviours, such as binge drinking, balconing, prostitution, and drugs. Prevention information and legal actions are tools DMs use to avoid the negative implications and consequences of such behaviours. However, some destinations have recently implemented shock advertising campaigns to contrast and prevent such acts.

The schema incongruity model proposed individuals have schemata, which is a set of knowledge they hold about a subject matter. If they experience an activity or an advert that is congruent with their schema, it creates a feeling of familiarity and they can quickly process it, but it does not require any cognitive effort. On the other hand, if the experience is incongruent, it stimulates cognitive efforts as individuals try to resolve the incongruity (Mandler, 1982). If the discrepancy is extreme and difficult to resolve, it may lead to frustration. However, individuals may efficiently resolve moderate mismatches, leading to a feeling of success and accomplishment (Mandler, 1982). According to Barnes (1999), ambient advertisements, which is one characteristic of shock ads, usually establish a schema mismatch, since they do not conform to the schemata that fits into individual natural environments or the advertising schema that they hold regarding a particular style of advertisements (e.g., advertising for tourism which may include promoting a destination with beautiful scenery).

The findings from the research posit this model accurately, as it found the behavioural intentions and attitudes toward advertising for extremely shocking ads were unfavourable, while the behavioural intentions for mildly shocking ads were favourable. Building from this, it is believed advertising elements and schemata that are different from the audiences' expectations would produce increased cognition of the ad content (Dimofte *et al.*, 2003). Incongruent stimuli take longer to process than congruent stimuli, as the individual tries to make sense of the incongruity in the message, enhancing memory. An optimal level of incongruity should be reached for the advertisement to produce positive attitudes and behaviour (Yoon, 2013). Waddill and McDaniel (1998) also opined uncommon stimuli usually take longer to assimilate than commonplace stimuli, and this can aid memory retention.

Other factors needing consideration are consumer knowledge and the intentions of the advertisement. These factors play an important role in incongruity (Rozendaal *et al.*, 2011). Factors such as personality differences play the largest role in the way individuals react to any ads and is related to cognition and emotional characteristics (Muehling and McCann, 1993). Another essential factor to consider is that incongruity would be successful if the surprise element is applied in a familiar environment (Alden *et al.*, 2000). It was therefore necessary for the advertisement in this research to be placed in a familiar tourist environment the respondents could relate to (Yoon, 2013), although this was not communicated to respondents. That explains why a Spanish background was employed in the advertisements.

There are diverse research and newspaper publications on risky behaviour tourists exhibited while on holiday. Many resorts in Spain have experienced such problems (Bellis *et al.*, 2003). Practices such as unsafe sexual encounters, fighting, and drug and substance misuse have been recorded in Spain (Elliott *et al.*, 1998). Violence is so common among young Spaniards

that Hughes *et al.* (2008) found 5.2% of respondents have carried a weapon, 11.6% have been exposed to assaults, and 23% have been involved in fights in club scenes. Many destinations, such as Mallorca and Ibiza, have a high precedent of violence attributed to drinking and substance misuse, especially among British tourists (Calafat *et al.*, 2013). Some factors that increase violence in these locations are nightlife activities, alcohol promotion, and tourists' behaviours and attitudes (Blay *et al.*, 2010). Spain's Balearic Islands, specifically, is popular destination among international and national tourists looking for nightlife activities (Sönmez *et al.*, 2013).

There was need to assess the understanding of the types of advertisements that are typical and atypical to tourism to create an ad that would be familiar in that context. Consequently, measuring incongruity and congruity using categories such as atypical, typical, relevant, irrelevant, and unexpected and expected was employed. The significance of the advertisement was also of due importance, as the audience can view an irrelevant ad as an advertising gimmick and ignore the message.

The schema incongruity model can help explain how incongruity in shock advertisements can be used as a management tool for tourists' misconduct. The congruity level was measured and analysed using correlation analyses and ANOVA (see paragraph 6.4 above) to examine the relationship between the congruency in the advertisement and behavioural intentions after viewing the ads. The results showed a relationship between the respondents' perceived congruity level of the ad and their behavioural intentions not to consume a lot of alcohol or engage in violence. This was also the case with the degree of violence in the ad, attitudes toward the ad, and behavioural intentions. However, mildly incongruent ads were better at producing a change in behavioural intentions. There was no relationship between highly incongruent ads, behavioural intentions, and Aad. These findings are consistent with the schema incongruity theory which purports mildly incongruent ads can change attitude and behaviour and enhance cognition, while extremely incongruent ads may not be quickly resolved and consumers may dismiss the ad, resulting in frustration.

#### 6.6.3. RO3: To Provide Recommendations to DMs on how to Implement Shock Advertising Strategies

The findings from this research revealed DMs were less likely to use shock advertising because it is frowned upon culturally, supporting the results of Sawang (2010) where North Americans were more likely to employ the use of sexual appeals than Asians. DMs all agreed tourist behaviour should be managed, just as behaviour is maintained in different settings like universities, churches, airports, and in organisations. However, shock advertising is hardly used for many destinations, although many DMs testified to the effectiveness of campaigns in

areas such as policing, social advertising, and highlighting health risks. The benefits of using shock tactics need to be presented to DMs to facilitate their strategic decision making.

The results also highlighted the many barriers' DMs face in the application of shock advertisements, such as bureaucracy in government policies, regulatory bodies, and the tourists who may decide to boycott their destination. To overcome some of the obstacles, DMs can get key executives involved in the design process and approval stages.

For DMs, whose aim it is to increase awareness of their destination's intolerance of tourists' misconduct, a mild shock tactic that is congruent with their cultural background is advised. Supporting Hypothesis 2a, this would lead to greater positive behavioural intentions than an extremely shocking ad. This will not alienate both domestic and international tourists as moderate incongruity enhance recall, grabs attention, and provides satisfaction as a resolution is reached (Mandler, 1982). However, DMs should also take into consideration the importance of adopting a multicultural approach when trying to pass on the message since they expect tourists from all over the world (Engelbart *et al.*, 2017). They should also pay close attention to the content of shock advertisements and ensure there is congruency between the advertisement message and the destination. More recommendations to DMs are presented in Chapter 7.

#### 6.6.4. RO4: To Provide Evidence of the Effectiveness of Shock Advertising on Tourists' Misconduct in the Travel and Tourism Industry.

The findings from the research highlighted the effectiveness of shock advertising on tourists' misconduct. The uniqueness of shock advertising is its ability to make tourists stop, ponder, and deliberate on their actions, leading to positive behavioural intentions and a change in attitude. Moderate incongruent ads have an impact on tourists' behavioural intentions and curtail misconduct in tourists, as they are less likely to carry on those actions. Having said that, advertisers need to ensure there is a correlation between the ad and the destination's aims and goals. Dahl *et al.* (2003) found for advertisers to break through the clutter and get their brands noticed, there has been an increase in the use of unconventional advertisements to catch the audience's attention and create awareness.

During the interviews with the DMs, each of them had a clear understanding of the appeals and the disadvantages of using shock advertisements. Some of them faced challenges with implementing the strategy for various reasons, such as lack of enthusiasm from top executives, religion, cultural norms, fear of legal persecutions, adverse reactions from the audience, and a total ban of the advertisements. A recommendation for overcoming some of these challenges includes involving key executives in the creative design and the process of approval.



A crucial area of any firm's branding and positioning process is the ability to manage a unique and likeable destination image (Ekinci, 2003). As such, many DMs believed shock advertisements would affect their destination negatively, as tourists may relate what they see on the adverts to what is happening in their destination and subsequently avoid them. However, findings from the quantitative research showed tourists would not perceive their destination in a bad light if shock tactics were employed, so this may encourage its use among DMs. Also, it may be the only option to combat the wide effects of tourists' misconduct and maintain a destination that all stakeholders would enjoy.

## **6.7 Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed findings from the semi-structured interviews with the DMs and the results obtained from the online and in-person surveys. The discussion started with testing the hypotheses to determine whether they were supported and ended with a review on the implications of the findings for DMs and tourists. The results of past studies in the field of marketing and tourism and how they are supported has been highlighted and new results debated. The objectives of the research, as identified in Chapter 1, have been to link the results.

Though the use of shock tactics is presently widespread, its target audience is becoming desensitised to it. This study found to prevent this; shock ads must be employed appropriately. However, there are still some themes that may be taboo for some audiences, especially if they violate religion and morality (Parry *et al.*, 2013). DMs are responsible for the advertising material and must apply care and tactics in their communication to avoid offending the public or violating the law.

The results of this study strengthen aspects of schema incongruity theory in connection with the use of shock advertising in tourism management. It proposes that mild incongruity in advertising can result in awareness of social issues, as it has been used successfully in other industries such as health when addressing issues like smoking, obesity, drunk driving, and cancer awareness. Despite the debate on the effectiveness of shock advertising, in general, the shock images and words presented in this study were effective in grabbing the attention of respondents and producing attitude and behavioural changes, thereby mirroring prior research in this field. The next chapter will discuss the management implications, limitations, and areas for future research.

## **CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION**

### **7.0 Introduction**

This thesis has investigated the effectiveness of shock advertising in managing tourists' misbehaviour and how this strategy can be implemented with few negative repercussions to destinations. Shock advertising is a commonly used strategy in marketing communication and is becoming the norm to discourage or encourage some behaviours and activities like smoking cessation, healthy eating, wearing of seat belts, and charity donations. The effects of these on the audience could define shock advertising. Shock advertising can arouse a sense of disconformity with accepted social norms and behaviours. On the other hand, in the tourism field, its benefits have seldom been harnessed.

This chapter is broken into four main sections. The contributions of the study to the current body of evidence were discussed in relation to tourism advertising research, the schema incongruity model, and challenges DMs face if they wish to apply this tactic. Secondly, the implications to managers were examined and implementation strategies of shock advertising were analysed. Thirdly, the limitations of the study and areas for future research were highlighted. Finally, the researcher's reflection of the research process was discussed, ending with a conclusion.

### **7.1 Contribution to Knowledge**

This research has been successful in contributing to knowledge on the application of shock advertising in managing tourists' behaviours. This study contributes to tourism advertising in five key areas.

Firstly, the main contribution of the research is that it provided evidence that shock advertising can be employed as a management strategy tool for DMs to curtail tourists' misbehaviours.

Creativity in advertising is essential if marketers are to capture consumers' attention. The results provided signposts that enhance research on the effectiveness of using shock advertising in discouraging tourists' misbehaviour. Tourist misbehaviours (e.g., violence) are common in global tourism (Hughes *et al.*, 2008). These behaviours cause damage to tourism infrastructures, interfere with hosts activities, and hamper other tourists' experiences (Li and Chen, 2017). There is very few research on management of tourists' misbehaviour which can be used as a guide to understand how advertising, as a communication tool, can help curtail tourists' misbehaviour. Shock advertising can be used to solve sensitive social issues and change behaviour (Banyte *et al.*, 2014) and is effective in studying and offering solutions to

annoying tourist behaviours, consistent with the findings of this research. The research provides a reliable and accurate picture of the use of shock tactics in managing tourists' misbehaviour.

Secondly, this research contributes in the way that schema incongruity theory can be used and applied effectively in destination communications, campaigns, and messages. This study was novel as it was the first to apply the schema incongruity theory (a well-validated tool used in the field of psychology) on tourism advertising. Shock advertising, which is incongruent, can be used in drawing attention to behaviour that would not be tolerated. DMs can apply a mildly incongruent ad as it has been shown individuals would respond positively once they can resolve the incongruency (Mandler, 1982). DMs whose aim is to increase awareness of tourists' misbehaviour that would not be allowed at their destination should use a mild shock tactic that is congruent with their cultural background.

Another significant contribution of this research is the use of exploratory design. This study ranks among the first to examine the association between shock advertising and changing tourists' misbehaviour and the impact it has on their behavioural intentions and attitudes. This study comes at a time when research is required in helping to form managerial decisions on how to regulate the tourism industry. According to Nattrass (2020), exploratory research is a significant element of the scientific endeavour, particularly when it comes to understanding society. This research would help guide already severely stressed DMs and tourism stakeholders on how to effectively control their destinations and avoid harmful social vices.

Culturally, with the expansion of media and emersion of globalisation, marketers are becoming more aware of cultural differences across various societies; in a bid to understand diversity, a lot of research has been conducted to understand consumer behaviour in diverse cultural settings. Cultural dimensions that Hofstede (1983) proposed can guide an audience's reaction to shock advertising. However, DMs should also take into consideration the importance of taking a multicultural approach when trying to pass on the message, as they expect tourists from all over the world (Engelbart *et al.*, 2017).

By the mere nature of shock advertising, there is a potential risk of offending at least some of the audience. To use such a technique, advertisers are advised to engage the viewers with creatively designed ads that will more than likely provoke an emotional response (Belch and Belch, 2003). Another contribution of this study is that it brought the challenges and oppositions DMs face in using shock advertising as a marketing and management strategy to the forefront. Governmental parastatals that were a little bit cautious on what is aired to tourists to avoid shocking them run many tourists' locations. This research has shown regulatory

bodies sometimes harshly enforce rules on marketers who do not abide within their ethical and regulatory framework.

Finally, as the quantitative research has shown (Section 6.5.3), the inconsistency of the shock advertising affects tourists' behavioural intentions. Hence a mildly shocking violent ad would lead to the most positive behavioural intentions than a conventional ad. Therefore, to reduce the incidence of violence, DMs can air mildly incongruent ads in their destinations, so tourists are aware of the behaviours that are not allowed. Also, there was a significant correlation between the perceived level of shock and attitude toward the advertisements, and the way tourists see the shock tactics will determine whether they liked or disliked it. Hence, DMs must be mindful of the shock tactics they use and ensure they are congruent with the message they are trying to pass on. DMs must continually improve their communication process with tourists to help determine their behavioural and visit intentions.

## **7.2 Managerial Implications**

This study will certainly and instrumentally influence the way DMs apply shock advertising in facets of their destination campaign by changing their opinions and mindsets to the purpose of such advertising. To do so, proof of the efficacy of shock advertising in modifying tourists' misbehaviours must be shown to these DMs (Evans et al., 2019). It is imperative that tourists' misbehaviours are effectively managed for sustainability of the destinations. DMs all agreed tourist behaviour should be managed just as behaviour is handled in other corporate organisations, industries, and different settings (e.g., universities, churches, and airports).

Most importantly, this study showed shock advertising is rarely or not at all utilized in the tourism industry. This indicates DMs worry about upsetting their target audience or engaging in any act that will cause tourists to shun their destinations. However, it may be expedient to show these shock advertising to tourists that are of now present in the destination to increase alertness and inform of the behaviours and attitudes that are unacceptable. Also, DMs should give greater consideration to the style and subject matter of the appeal (Evans et al., 2019). Advertisers are tasked with the responsibility of producing appropriate scenes to correspond with the desired reaction and suitable issue framing.

Secondly, the findings emphasised the resistance DMs encounter in attempting to implement a shock advertising campaign. Opposition from public and private sectors, advertising bodies, and the audience. DMs could get senior managements engaged in the process of endorsement and creative tactics. For DMs within the tourism sector whose aim is to increase conscious awareness on tourists' misconduct that would not be acceptable at their destination,

employing a mild shock tactic that would be expected in their cultural setting would be appropriate. It would not break cultural foundation norms that may result in a ban of the advert, fines, and tourists boycotting their destination. Be that as it may, DMs should also take into consideration the importance of taking a multicultural approach when trying to pass on the message as they expect tourists from all over the world (Engelbart *et al.*, 2017).

DMs were eager to maintain a favourable destination image, to increase the probability of tourists' visiting the destination. DMs should make sure to assess tourist's perceived destination image prior to, after and when they are on their holiday (Evans *et al.*, 2019). The destination image that the locals hold is also essential, so DMs need to involve all stakeholders when proposing a tactic that can be used as a deterrent to tourists' misbehaviour.

The research sheds light on the type of media DMs should concentrate on because many respondents access most of their travel ads on the internet rather than via TV, magazines, and newspapers. They should therefore channel most of the advertising budget here due to its wider reach.

Additionally, the research shed some light on how tourists react to aired shock advertisements regarding their attitude toward shock tactics, behavioural intentions, and likelihood of visiting the destination after viewing the shock ads. These findings are beneficial to DMs as they provide evidence that these tactics do work in curtailing specific behaviours. However, the implementation should be done in congruency with the message they are trying to pass on.

### **7.3 Limitations of the Study**

This research has made some important contributions to the current evidence in shock advertising. Despite this, like all research, it had limitations which are discussed below. It is presented in terms of both qualitative and quantitative studies.

- Behavioural intentions: One major limitation of this research is it did not primarily quantify the actual behaviour of tourists. Rather, only the intention of tourists to not perform deviant behaviours that could be detrimental to the host community and other tourists were assessed. "Many studies have employed behavioural intentions as they are representation for actual behaviour especially if there is justification that intentions are assessed in a context that is likely to produce realistic beliefs concerning the behaviour" (Ajzen *et al.*, 2004, p. 1119). Hence, this limitation is not unique to this study but other

studies that have used behavioural intention as a dependent variable (Hussein *et al.*, 2014).

- Small sample size: Although we had an adequate sample size of 26 DMs, it could be difficult to generalise to the number of tourist destinations worldwide. Nonetheless, the research has generated some thoughts and findings that can be further explored with a much larger sample size of DMs and participants from the private sector such as hotels, resorts, and attractions.
- An extensive variant of destinations: In using a wide range of destinations, factors such as cultural differences of the DMs can affect their perception of shock advertising campaigns. Although this makes the research broader and more generalisable, it may be better and more in-depth to concentrate on just one destination.
- Knowledge and application of shock advertising: While interviewing the DMs, it became apparent they did not understand the concept of shock advertising. Some outsourced their advertising to large advertising agencies, thereby unable to give good examples of how this tactic could be applied in managing tourists' misbehaviour.
- Lack of research in the use of shock advertising in tourism: Globally, there are very few studies on the use of shock advertising in curtailing tourists' misbehaviour, leading to the paucity of literature on which to build on. While there were previous studies on the use of shock advertising in other sectors such as fashion, road safety, obesity, and smoking, some of this transferable knowledge was limiting in some areas. However, the uniqueness of this study shows it has made an original contribution to destination advertising and tourism.
- Between-subjects design: This could have limited the research in the sense that respondents only saw one of the ads. By doing so, new schemas may have been activated, causing individuals to form their judgements and inferences from these ads. It may have been overcome by allowing them to see all the ads or a variety of advertisements; they have activated a new schema by preparing the subject what to see next.
- Fictitious destinations: In using fictional destinations, the degree of mismatch could be higher than for real life destinations. Tourists may not notice the incongruity in a real holiday setting as they may be distracted (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986a). Thus, our findings should be a guide rather than what the ads can do if used in a real-life setting.

- Length of the questionnaire: Another hindering factor that affected the completion of the online survey and in-person completion was the length of the questions. Since the research was covering both tourism and shock advertising, there was a need for many questions. As a result of this, some of the tourists we approached did not want to complete it, and we had a few uncompleted questionnaires.
- Exploratory studies biases: A restricting factor of the research could be the way the data was collected. When it comes to audience-based studies, there is a tendency for respondents to exaggerate socially unacceptable behaviours. This situation mainly arises when respondents such as the DMs are given the freedom to express their viewpoints on tourist misbehaviours. Biases could occur due to the subjectivity of what individuals from various cultural orientations consider the norm or socially tolerable.
- Single exposure to ad: Much advertising research relies on solitary disclosure of the advertisement to the respondents (Vargas *et al.*, 2017). However, it is known that the audience's reaction to multiple exposures to an advertisement can differ significantly from their single initial exposure (Lutchyn and Faber, 2016). Hence, it is essential in some models that the audience is exposed to multiple repetitions in one setting or spread across a certain time frame.
- Focus on advertising stimuli: Finally, a great deal of research on advertising stimuli are created in such a way that respondents are made to focus on the images to increase attention. However, it is a known fact that in everyday settings, individuals see advertisements in a cluttered environment, or they may be busy with other activities and may, in essence, pay little or no attention to the ads, thereby affecting their attitudes and behavioural and purchase intentions.

## 7.4 Reflection on the Validity of Data and Tools

As with all research, certain factors which may or may not be within the direct control of the researcher limited the way data were obtained. In this study, semi-structured interviews were restricted to verbal responses to the questions. However, the researcher could not assess the nonverbal behavioural reactions of participants. This could have been achieved by employing a neurolinguistic who is trained in reading body language and eye movements of the respondent. One significant critical challenge identified in using such a vast range of destinations was language barriers. Hence, the researcher decided to interview destinations

that had tourism offices in the UK. However, it should be noted that interviewing DMs in the UK could have meant that some of the issues faced at the destination would not have been highlighted. Although a significant barrier was the destinations used in this study spoke various languages the researcher was unfamiliar with, this possible impact was reduced as all the interviewees spoke English language. Also, there was the issue of timing, which is a critical limiting factor in qualitative research. Additional interviews could have been carried out in other destinations to provide a more in-depth data analysis of shock advertising, but saturation was reached in the context of this study. In terms of reliability and validity, the researcher's experience is one vital part that can hinder the research. The various aspects, such as honesty, integrity, confirmability, and reliability are essential for the investigation to unfold in a precise manner. The constant changing process of the study meant the researcher should carry out situational analysis and make decisions that would affect the overall success of the study.

There also is the issue of researcher and location bias. Bias in qualitative research is a common integral part of the data collection process. In this study, the researcher needed to come up with destinations that experienced tourists' misbehaviour and hence could have introduced some bias due to their choice. Using Spain as the destination for the advertisement design could introduce some biases in the respondent's perception of the location, although this was not highlighted for respondents. There could be a transfer of schemas or past experiences in relations to their responses. Notwithstanding, it was essential to have a destination participants could relate to themselves. A typical case study approach is found to produce a more realistic representative answer to the question being addressed (Borradaile, 2012). The study was also restricted to examining behavioural intentions instead of actual behaviours. There is perhaps a strong argument that it may have been more beneficial to study tourists visiting the destinations for a period to see how they act when on holiday. Yet, this may have been very costly and not feasible for the researcher. Also, as previously discussed, it has been documented that behavioural intentions can even predict actual behaviour.

## **7.5 Author's Reflections**

Tourism as a sector has been widely researched because it has so many benefits to the economy and destinations. While the benefits it brings cannot be overemphasised, there arise many problems like violence, environmental issues, and depletion of natural resources. Effective communication to tourists is essential for destinations in a competitive environment to promote their destination and pass on vital information. The real power of shock advertising



lies in the use of 'grabbing consumer' attention and influencing their behaviours. Though shock advertising is transversal to many sectors and industries, studies in tourism are quite rare. Nevertheless, shock advertising has begun to be used to contrast and prevent tourist misbehaviours such as binge drinking, balconing, prostituting, taking illegal drugs, and others. The goal of this work was to examine DMs' perceptions of the use of shock advertising in managing tourist misbehaviour and their reaction to the use of such a management tactic.

My interest lied in advertising and tourism as a subject area, and I vigorously aimed to expand my knowledge. My PhD journey has been one of fun, excitement, and hard work as it has enabled me to understand my strengths and weaknesses. This study has been beneficial in so many ways; it has equally helped me understand what doing research entails and how my work would be helpful to the broader research community. It has also enhanced my research skills and broadened my horizon overall on the subject matter of tourism and incongruent advertising. In carrying out this research, my confidence has grown, and my writing and presentation skills have improved, although I must still do a lot of self-development and improvement to keep growing. I am hoping completion of my studies would serve as a pathway to carry out more research and make meaningful contributions to the knowledge base in tourism marketing. The challenges I encountered during this journey has made me resilient and grow as a researcher. These will only serve as a confidence booster to overcome similar problems that may arise as I endeavour to conduct more research.

As a researcher, on a personal note, this study has provided me with the opportunity to see from both the perspective of the advertiser and a tourist. In undertaking this exploratory sequential study, nothing could be presumed from the start. Since the research area is unexplored, it has been an eye-opener to discover the challenges that DMs face in maintaining an attractive destination while trying to meet their targets of inbound tourists. These problems experienced are not unique to Spain but other destinations worldwide.

Doing mixed-method research posed its challenges to me as a researcher. Mixed-methods research requires proficiency in both qualitative and quantitative methods which involved a lot of learning of the skills needed. Linking the findings from the qualitative approach to the quantitative methods was essential, and so was learning how to use the various analytical tools. However, this success means I can use either or both research methods in future projects.

This research journey has introduced me to the art of writing articles, which has been significant in my journey. I have been privileged to publish a book and present my research at conferences. It has been essential for broadening my horizon, as I was able to meet other scholars from similar and diverse research fields who have provided insights on some of the

approaches used in this study. It helped increase my network of researchers in and out of the university. I received feedback from numerous helpful researchers that I feel confident I would be able to broaden the knowledge in tourism advertising.

In conclusion, I have been able to increase my research capabilities since starting this study. Looking back at where I have come, I can see a significant change in the way I analyse, critique, and appraise any information or findings. Now, I have a higher consciousness of the role that advertising can play in changing attitudes and behaviour. I owe a lot of the knowledge I have gained to prior researchers in this field. I am excited about learning more and impacting the area of shock advertising and how they could be used in different sectors.

### **7.6 Areas for Future Research**

Stakeholders use data collected on tourist behaviour in holiday planning, developmental strategies, marketing products, and finally for managing any problematic tourist behaviour. Thus, this area must be researched extensively because many countries depend on tourism for its economic progress. The following fields can be further examined:

- This study utilised behavioural intention, which on its own is appropriate. However, more robust research in this area in the future should go beyond the bounds of tourists' intentions and measure their actual behaviour. It is frequently noted that individuals fail to act in harmony with their stated intentions (Ajzen *et al.*, 2004). Future studies should pay more attention to irresponsible behaviour and measure the effect shock advertising would have on tourists.
- This research has employed the use of print advertising, but further studies should incorporate other advertising channels, especially online or TV, since a good majority of tourism advertising is done online and TV. For instance, Christy (2006) argued TV can be seen as more shocking because of two factors. First, the full range of audience size TV can reach at any given time may be of great benefit to an organisation but has the potential to shock by airing irrelevant message to an unintended audience. Second, the stereotype of images and concepts are typically used because of the broad audience it is meant to reach and hence may come across as patronising to some audiences.
- The research context is extensive as the researcher interviewed DMs from a wide geographical area, however further studies could examine one region (e.g., Asia) due to cultural differences and complexities. Parry *et al.* (2013) found some respondents from various cultural backgrounds responded

differently towards the shock ads. For example, an agnostic from Iran was more disgusted by the image of AIDS campaign than a British Christian who was not as shocked. This findings supports the notion that religion and nationality play a vital role in how a shock advertising is perceived.

- Future studies should investigate whether tourists' memorability of the shock ads impacts their behavioural intentions. It is crucial as some studies have shown shock appeals are practical tools for encouraging consumers to remember advertising information and engage in the right cognitive behaviour (Dahl *et al.*, 2003).
- Furthermore, memorability could be tested for a longer duration, as respondents may remember the shock stimuli a few minutes after viewing the ad, but will they be able to retain the information a few weeks down the line and what are the long-term effects on their behaviour?
- Other types of shock appeals could be investigated such as sex appeals, threat appeals, fear appeals, and emotional appeals, as it has been shown the audience reacts differently to different appeals.
- The wear out of shock advertising should be considered in further research. This is known as "a reduction in subjects' favourable responses after repeated exposures to a message" (Hughes, 1992, p. 61). There may be a diminishing effect of such exposure as the blunt execution of the taboo element and the surprise in the ads may lose its effect once the audience becomes familiar with the appeal. Thornton and Rossiter (2001) and Job (1988) suggested the ideal research study should involve "continuous monitoring of the effect of shock appeal advertisement on the respondents for a period" (p. 196).
- There is a need to test the actual tourist's behaviour instead of their behavioural intentions, and this could be investigated by observing them over a period while they are on holiday.
- Other advertising agencies' perceptions of the use of shock advertising could be explored in further studies since many destinations outsource their advertising to these agencies.
- Revisit intentions could be investigated as many of these destinations are measured based on tourists' inbound numbers, so it would be good to see whether tourists who have viewed the advertisements would be interested in returning to the destination.
- Despite the limitations that are deep-rooted in the exploratory nature of this research, we are of the opinion that it enriches the intellectual argument on the

role that incongruity in tourism advertisements plays in managing misbehaviour for sustainable tourism development. The extension of this research should employ a more representative sample, the campaign should be rolled out in different regions, and different shock appeals should be measured one at a time to understand their effects on tourists' behaviours.

- Respondents could be shown a variety of ads in a booklet instead of showing them a harmonious ad, a moderately incongruent ad, and an extremely incongruent ad. It would prevent the participants from forming schemas that will affect their responses.

## **7.7 Summary**

This research began with the question of how tourists' misbehaviour can be managed as there seemed to be no proper management structure in place. Many newspaper publications and media coverage on the deviant behaviours that tourists exhibit have clearly demonstrated there is a need to study tourists' behavioural management to offer a solution to DMs. This kind of behaviour is not only a problem for the destinations but also for the tourists' home countries which provide consular services and advice to their citizens who might be arrested and detained abroad at a cost to the taxpayers. For instance, a popular destination in Spain for British tourists had over 1,900 arrests of British citizens between 2011 and 2012—an increase of 6% from the previous year (McCartney, 2014). Many of these arrests were due to drug- and alcohol-related incidents.

Tourists must not be given a wrong label as their activities are crucial to the growth of many economies, including Spain, when it faced a financial meltdown. However, these deviant behaviours must be managed as they hurt the host communities and other stakeholders. Tourists' misbehaviours are nothing new. However, with the rise of social media and other outlets, there has been an enormous outcry of the impact of this on the environment, the depletion of natural heritages, and other similar issues. The society we live in is ever-changing. However, some of these changes are more tolerated than others.

Shock advertising can be used as a communication tool to manage tourists' misbehaviour and expectations in a destination. The contribution from this research and prior studies shows shock advertising is useful in creating awareness and changing attitudes and behavioural intentions. This could be implemented while visiting the destination so tourists who are already visiting are aware of the kind of behaviour that would not be allowed. However, managers need to be culturally aware of the type of tactics they can employ because shock advertising has the potential to cause offence and disgust if not applied in the right context. For instance,

in some cultural settings, nudity in the advertisement is frowned upon; hence, these should be avoided so the ad is not banned, and the agency does not face fines or legal suits. When different cultures meet in a destination, a tourist culture is usually formed, and this can help tourists and hosts settle into the differences that may exist between their values and beliefs. Zinkhan and Watson (1996) purported advertising mirrors the changes in the world and plays an active role in the defiance of cultural norms and values.

Within the tourism sector, DMs who aim to increase awareness of tourists' misbehaviour that would not be permitted at their destination should use a mild shock tactic that is congruent with their cultural background. This will not alienate both domestic and international tourists as moderate incongruity grabs attention and provides satisfaction as a resolution is reached (Mandler 1982). However, DMs should also take into consideration the importance of taking a multicultural approach when trying to pass on the message, as they expect tourists from all over the world (Engelbart *et al.*, 2017). Shock advertising can be used to solve sensitive social issues and change behaviour (Banyte *et al.*, 2014) and this may be effective in studying and offering solutions to annoying tourist behaviours, as the present research underlined. However, this study found DMs were reluctant to use it, and this may be due to the many hurdles such as bureaucracy in government policies, regulatory bodies, and tourist boycotting. To overcome some of these, managers can get critical executives involved in the design process, creativity, and approval stages.

This study proposed the intention to visit a destination is not affected negatively if tourists are exposed to shock advertising. It is essential DMs are made aware of this so they can use it freely with the full knowledge it would not impact their inbound tourist numbers. Although, other factors such as cultural differences and level of education should be considered, because the way individuals perceive the discrepancy in the advertisements may differ according to these factors. When creating a shock advertising campaign, individuality such as differing cultures and personalities that have shaped experiences should be considered. Hence, DMs have the difficult task of taking these variations into consideration in forming their communication strategies.

For tourists' destinations to achieve their potential, there should be adequate planning and management of its resources and capabilities, bearing in mind the challenges of the complexity of the tourism industry. When DMs do not plan on how they will deal with tourists' misbehaviour, it enables acceptance of that behaviour and can quickly escalate (Hughes *et al.*, 2008). For instance, misbehaviour in tourists' hotspots, drunken antics, and violence may result from DMs' negligence. Yet, for a destination to strive in this competitive environment, it must offer tourists a safe and satisfying environment in which they would be able to

recommend to friends and family to visit and their revisit intentions. DMs ought to endeavour to stamp a favourable image of the destination on the minds of the tourists as it influences the tourist destination selection and their total satisfaction. Destinations wanting to evade adverse implications with socioeconomic vices such as political instability, misbehaviours, wars, homicides, and unsafe sexual behaviours, should involve all its stakeholders and collaborate to produce a tourist destination that will align with the image they anticipate representing (Evans et al., 2019).

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix A: Ethical Approval



Augusta Evans <augusta.evans@study.beds.ac.uk>

### **Ethical Clearance Approval - Augusta Ifeanyichukwu Evans, Registration No: 0610656**

3 messages

**Yanqing Duan** <Yanqing.Duan@beds.ac.uk>

4 April 2017 at 17:41

To: "augusta.evans@study.beds.ac.uk" <augusta.evans@study.beds.ac.uk>

Cc: Giuseppe Adamo <Giuseppe.Adamo@beds.ac.uk>, Alia El Banna <Alia.ElBanna@beds.ac.uk>, Silvia Borelli <Silvia.Borelli@beds.ac.uk>, Christina Schwabenland <Christina.Schwabenland@beds.ac.uk>, Syamarlah Rasaratnam <Syamarlah.Rasaratnam@beds.ac.uk>, Ram Ramanathan <Ram.Ramanathan@beds.ac.uk>, Research Graduate School Office <rgsoffice@beds.ac.uk>

#### **BMRI Research Ethics Approval No. BMRI/Ethics/Student/2016-17/007**

Dear Augusta Evans,

The BMRI Research Ethics Committee has considered your application for Ethics approval for your research project. I am providing ethics clearance for this project in my capacity as the deputy chair of the BMRI Ethics Committee.

While executing your project, please ensure that you adhere to the ethics principles of the University (<http://www.beds.ac.uk/research-ref/rgs/research-ethics>) at all times. Please note that if there is substantial change in your research project, you may have to seek ethical approval again.

Since this project is not externally funded, this clearance is not forwarded to the University Research Ethics Committee for further approval.

I am copying RGS in this email and including other relevant documents with a request to RGS to record these information in your student file.

The BMRI Research Ethics Committee wishes you success in your interesting research project.

Kind regards

Prof Yanqing Duan

## Appendix B: Participant Consent form

**Research Title:** Shock Advertising and its impact on tourist behaviour- Perspective from Destination Managers and Tourists.

**Researcher's Name:** Augusta Evans

Thank you for your time and your willingness to participate in a research project examining the effectiveness of Shock Advertising and its impact on buyer behaviour from the perspective of Destination Managers and Tourists.

Please note that your participation in this research is voluntary, and you may choose to leave the research at any point. You are also free to answer or decline to answer any questions that you are not comfortable with. You may also withdraw your permission for your answers or data to be used at any time up till publication of the research. Although your participation may not have a direct benefit to you, it is hoped that the data collected will be used in understanding the effect of shock advertisement in the travel and tourism industry, helping in exploring tourists' behaviours and in destination management.

Please feel free to ask the researcher any questions that you are not clear about, and you can decide to carry on with participation or not. Please note that the interview will be audio-taped, but your personal information will be preserved at all time, and no identifying information will be made assessable to the general public at any time. Your answers to questionnaire will also be stored safely and confidential, and you will remain anonymous. It is anticipated that the research will involve viewing some advertisements, completing a questionnaire and also a semi-structured interview.

This study is completed as part fulfilment of PhD degree, and if at any point you have any ethical concerns on the manner in which the research is being conducted, please feel free to contact the University Research Ethics Committee (UREC) at [rgsoffice@beds.ac.uk](mailto:rgsoffice@beds.ac.uk).

Your signature below will confirm that you have understood the following.

- I have read and understood the information provided explaining the details of the research.
- I understand that the semi-structured interview will be recorded
- That I am able to withdraw my consent from participation in the research at any point in time.
- That my information provided will be treated with confidentiality at all times.
- I understand that this study and information provided is for research purpose only, and information will not be passed on to any 3<sup>rd</sup> parties.
- That I consented in participation and it's voluntary.

**Participant signature:** \_\_\_\_\_

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

I confirm that I agree to keep the undertakings in this contract.

**Researcher signature:** \_\_\_\_\_

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix C: Participation Information Sheet

**Research Title:** Shock Advertising and its impact on tourist behaviour- Perspective from Destination Managers and Tourists.

**Research Summary:** To ascertain the effectiveness of shock advertisements in the travel and tourism industry and provide an opportunity to destination managers to implement this strategy to understand tourist's behavioural intentions.

**Researcher Details:** Augusta Evans

**Email:** [augusta.evans@study.beds.ac.uk](mailto:augusta.evans@study.beds.ac.uk)

### Invitation

You are invited to participate in this research study being conducted by Augusta Evans, a research student with the Business Management Research Institute, University of Bedfordshire, and Luton, United Kingdom.

### How is the study being paid for?

This research is self-funded.

### Purpose of Research

The purpose of this research is to explore the impact of shock advertising in the travel and tourism industry from the perspective of destination managers and tourists. It hopes to highlight and better understand the viewpoint of both the advertiser and that of the receiver.

### What will I be asked to do?

A one to one semi-structured interview will be done with the destination managers to allow them to be open and helps bring to the forefront those situations, words or elements that may be difficult to express in a group setting.

### Duration of the interview

The interview will last about 30-45 minutes, and it be performed at a time and venue that have been agreed upon and suitable. The interview will be done either face to face or by Skype.

### What specific benefits will I receive for participating?

There will be no personal benefits for participating in this research. However, the data will be extracted and used to expand the knowledge in regards to the impact of shock advertising in the travel and tourism industry irrespective to destination management.

### How do you intend to publish the results?

The data collected will be used to form part of my Thesis and will potentially be published as part of my PhD degree. If you will like to receive an electronic copy of my completed work I will be more than happy to send to you.

### Confidentiality/Anonymity

This study has been approved by the University Research Ethics Committee (UREC) and will follow the protocol and guidelines of the Business and Management Research Institute. The data collected will be treated with the highest level of confidentiality, and no personal or private business information will be disclosed. The information collected will be saved on the University of Bedfordshire laptop and devices that are password protected. All data will be stored securely and can be accessed within the University of Bedfordshire approach, and compliant within the Data Protection Act 1998 (DPA) as outlined in our Data Protection and IT Data Security policies and a full copy of our registration document can be viewed on the Information Commissioner's website at <https://ico.org.uk>. If you have any complaints or queries, you may wish to contact my supervisor, Dr Giuseppe Adamo at [Giuseppe.adamo@beds.ac.uk](mailto:Giuseppe.adamo@beds.ac.uk) or Dr Barbara Czarnecka at [Barbara.czarnecka@beds.ac.uk](mailto:Barbara.czarnecka@beds.ac.uk).



To whom it may concern,

My name is Augusta Evans, a PhD student with the University of Bedfordshire and my research is on Shock Advertising in the Travel and Tourism Industry- Perspective from Destination Managers and Tourists. This email is an invitation to participate in a telephone or a face to face interview that will last about 30-45minutes. This research plans to highlight and better understand the viewpoint of both the advertiser and that of the receiver in the use or non-usage of shock advertisements in the travel and tourism sector.

Before you decide if you will like to participate, please take time to read the participant information sheet attached in this email. I will be very grateful if I could be directed to the right department/persons if this has been sent in error to this email address.

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any queries or questions. Thank you in anticipation for your kind consideration, and I look forward to your response.

Kind Regards

Augusta Evans

PhD Student

Business and Management Research Institute

University of Bedfordshire

[augusta.evans@study.beds.ac.uk](mailto:augusta.evans@study.beds.ac.uk)

Research Graduate School email- [rgsoffice@beds.ac.uk](mailto:rgsoffice@beds.ac.uk)

Phone Number- 01582 489056

#### Appendix D: Semi-Structured Interview Questions

STAGES		RESEARCH QUESTION/OBJECTIVES	PROPOSED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS	JUSTIFICATION FOR THE QUESTIONS
Stage 1	Q1  Obj	<p>What styles of advertisements are usually used, and which audience is this targeted at?</p> <p>To investigate the mode and medium of advertising are employed or not employed in the destinations.</p>	<p>What type of advertising is usually employed by your organisations?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Which medium do you normally use to advertise? E.g. Print, TV, Billboards, Radio, Internet.</li> <li>• Where are these advertisements normally aired?</li> <li>• What types of advertisements have you produced in the recent years?</li> <li>• Who are your intended audience for the advertisements that are aired? For instance, young adults, families, male, females, matured adults.</li> </ul>	<p>The demographics of the audience is of particular importance to the marketer that is about to create a shocking advertisement as interpretations of the ads are largely subjective on an individual's age, gender, how educated they are, income, religion and a few other factors (Christy and Haley, 2008)</p>

Stage 2	Q2	To what extent and in which context are shock advertisements employed in the travel and tourism industry?	Following on from our previous discussions, what does “shock advertising” mean to you? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• In your own words, what attributes make an advertisement shocking?</li> <li>• What examples have you used of shock advertising, and what did they mean to you?</li> <li>• Have shock advertising been used by your organisation, and how was this done?</li> <li>• Can you explain to what extent that this was employed?</li> </ul>	‘Academic researches’ examining the effectiveness of the use of shock advertisements as a means to persuade individuals to change behaviour has been varied and remains “a matter of on-going debate and investigation” (Chamberlain, 2015, p.13; Morales <i>et al.</i> , 2012, p.383).
Stage 2	Q3	How do destination managers understand and employ the use of shocking advertisements in their advertising campaigns	Since you employed “shock advertising” in your organisation, what do you think the impacts are? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What do you consider to be the benefits and the shortfalls of using “shock advertising” in your organisation?</li> <li>• What are the barriers to using shock advertising?</li> <li>• What are the external and internal factors that can influence the application of shock advertising?</li> </ul>	Shock tactics and threat appeals are used frequently in order to facilitate large-scale changes in behaviours and attitudes (Sutton, 1992) in social marketing. Banyte <i>et al.</i> , (2014) shocking images in social context can act as an effective educational tool. However, the advertisements should be put across in such a way that is delicate and does not bring about unwanted responses from the consumers.
Stage 2	Obj	To explore the reasons for annoying tourist’s behaviours exhibited in various destinations as viewed by destination managers.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What types of tourists’ behaviours would you consider shocking, annoying and antisocial?</li> <li>• Why do you think tourists behave the way they do whilst on holiday?</li> <li>• What are annoying tourist’s behaviours that are usually experienced by tourists as reported by your organisations?</li> <li>• Who do you think should manage tourist’s behaviours, and how should it be done?</li> </ul>	<p>The travel and tourism industry is facing a lot of problems and challenges with anti-social behaviours, annoying behaviour in tourism being one of these (Borradaile, 2012). Loi and Pearce (2012, p.397) classified annoying tourist’s behaviour into “a) behaviours directly relating to others b) isolated individual acts and c) marginally illegal or scam behaviours.</p> <p>Shock tactics and threat appeals are used frequently in order to facilitate large-scale changes in behaviours and attitudes (Sutton, 1992)</p>
Stage 3	Q4	What impacts does shock advertising have on buyer behaviour in the tourism	How is the effectiveness of an advertising campaign in your organisation measured?	Many organisations measure the effectiveness of advertisement through the recall of commercial

	Obj	<p>industry in terms of destination perceptions and behaviours?</p> <p>To provide evidence of the effectiveness of shocking advertising on buyer behaviour in the travel and tourism industry</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What methods/tools are in place to assess the effectiveness of an advertising campaign?</li> <li>• What components are analysed after shock advertisement has been aired? For instance, memory recalls buyer attitudes, behavioural intentions.</li> <li>• Do you feel that shock advertisements will affect destination image positively or negatively?</li> </ul>	<p>content (Heath and Naim, 2005; Urwin and Venter, 2014). Memory recall is essential, and it determines if consumers are going to purchase the products or services (Bushman and Bonacci, 2002; Urwin and Venter, 2014).</p>
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## Appendix E: Sample Transcript

### Head of Brand Development / Georgia (More than 4years)

Q1: Which medium do you normally use to advertise? E.g. Print, TV, Billboards, Radio, Internet

A: Print media, magazines, online, TV, Billboards outsource advertisements, but they control it

Q1: Where these advertisements are normally aired?

A: TV but Mostly online and digital, Georgia, Russia, Ukraine and Karastan.

Q1: What types of advertisements have you produced in the recent years?

A: Travel related program and promotional ads

Q1: Who are your intended audience for the advertisements that are aired? For instance, young adults, families, male, females, matured adults.

A: 18 plus, or 21 plus and families, various products for different segments, backpackers, wedding destinations, couples

Q2: In your own words, what attributes make an advertisement shocking?

Not used shock advertisements like guerilla advertisements; purpose is to attract and not to shock

Q2: What examples have you used of shock advertising, and what did they mean to you?

A: Do not really apply this

Q2: Have shock advertising been used by your organization, and how was this done?

A: No it has not been done

Q2: Can you explain to what extent that this was employed?

A: A good kind of shock has been used, where an individual was hanging in a hammock in the air where people were surprised.

Also, 6<sup>th</sup> million guests were welcomed in Georgia this year, and the prime minister was waiting for him, and he was given a pleasant surprise for a week, showing him the attractions. That's shock in a positive way.

Q3: What do you consider to be the benefits and the shortfalls of using "shock advertising" in your organization?

A: Shocking ads are not always negative and offensive, although it still provokes debates within the community.

Q 3: What are the barriers to using shock advertising?

A: Not implemented this, so cannot really comment on this aspect of marketing.

Q 3: What are the external and internal factors that can influence the application of shock advertising?

A: It may have a negative impact on the brand

Q3: What types of tourists' behaviours would you consider shocking, annoying and antisocial?

A: Georgians are welcoming and do not really get offended; it's not a trend in Georgia. Hotels report that tourists leave garbage and rubbish in their rooms, but it's not just in Georgia; it is common.

Q3: Why do you think tourists behave the way they do whilst on holiday?

A: Cultural differences

Q3: What are annoying tourist's behaviours that are usually experienced by tourists as reported by your organizations'?

A: Very uncommon in Georgia but mostly reported by hotels, and not in a problem in Georgia. A lot of tourists come to Georgia to drink as it is known for its wine, but it does not really cause any problems. Georgia is relatively safe, and there is a high presence of police, and in crowded areas where there are tourists, they make their presence felt as a deterrent to any anti-social behaviour.



Q3: Who do you think should manage tourist's behaviours' and how should it be done?

A: Government and policing

Q4: What methods/tools are in place to assess the effectiveness of an advertising campaign?

A: Online method- the likes, audience which is covered by the advertising.

The result that is got from the campaign and the growth of international arrival from the market and often it is positive

It is noticeable in the new market such as targeting India community, and there was growth.

Also, the GCC countries where there was growth experienced after a marketing campaign.

Q4: What components are analyzed after shock advertisement has been aired? For instance, memory recalls buyer attitudes, behavioural intentions.

A: Purchase intentions but the research department normally checks this.

Q4: Do you think Shock advertising will affect the destination image positively or negatively?

A: It depends on the idea; implementation and reviewing of the campaign it could be positive or negative. That's why we use marketing companies and outsource as they ask why this campaign will be effective, and they make decision whether to carry on and as long as it is in the concept of the brand.

**Dear respondent,**

**In this questionnaire, I am asking you to describe what a shocking image and words are to you. There are no wrong or right answers; I am interested in your opinions and feelings. Shock can also be described with words such as horrific, dreadful, awful, horrible, scandalous, outrageous, atrocious, revolting, repulsive, repugnant, disgusting, nauseating, offensive, perturbing and disturbing amongst others. To shock, someone is to startle, offend people and question the values they believe in. The survey is completely anonymous, and the information will be used only for educational and academic purposes. Thank you for your time. It should take no more than 10 minutes of your time.**

**augusta.evans@study.beds.ac.uk**

This image shows a blank sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

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Q5. What is your Age? \_\_\_\_\_

Q6. What is your nationality? \_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you!**

# Appendix G: Pre-test Questionnaire Answers

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7
N	Describing and defining a shocking image	Elements, characteristics, signs	Words and sentences	Suggested image/design for ads	Sex	Age	Nationality
	i.e. "something against common values."	i.e. blood	i.e. kill	Someone crying	M	24	Italian
1	Profanity whether it's in words or an act. Controversial photo can have a great impact in your life, change behaviour and hence you have a different perspective towards a specific situation.	Negative nuance, Sadness, Disgust, fear, and pure happiness. Elements that shake you to your core and make you feel something.	profanity	Gory as much as possible to cause a strong reaction and commotion.	F	24	American
2	Image that may cause hurt, sensitivity and reflection.	Blood, signs of danger, harm and destruction.	Insults, religion quotes, racist quotes, bad jokes, or making fun of some people disability.	Drunks involved in car accidents, or families destroyed by it, the effects of drugs abuse on your body in order to target the sensibility of the people so as not to end up like the ads.	F	32	Bolivian
3	A photo that grabs your attention, it could be in a good or bad way, for instance, an incredible landscape or a disgusting injury.	Unique contents with negative things in general such as accidents, scary scenes or irate atmospheres.	Unethical images or picture for example words or images which show women being assaulted by a man, someone hitting a child, a racist action, poverty or natural disasters.	Shocking image of someone hospitalized due to the consequences of, for example, drugs. The ad could represent the story of this person. A sad story where a group of friends went to the beach for holiday and because of the result of the drugs intake, he ended up falling through the window of his apartment. Now he is in the hospital in a coma, and his friends go every day to visit him. The conclusion	F	23	Spanish

				sentence could say something as... if you take drugs, you could face the same consequences as well.			
4	Images that contains mistreatment, abuse, pain, sick people, suffering people, dead people; even more shocking when those people are children. Also, images related to drugs abuse, terrorism, and sexual abuse, mistreatment of women, starvation and nature damages.	Pain, abuse suffering or damage to living being.	Insults and deprioritize words, explanation about the causes of the pain, or the activity that causes that pain or damage.	Suffering of the family, of friends. It should show not the damage that people could cause themselves but the pain they can cause to their beloved by doing that kind of actions.	F	27	Ecuadorian
5	Shocking image may show something strange, weird, bad or totally different. It could be something that happens naturally but not socially accepted.	The key characteristics are controversial or taboo.		I could use a funeral or death. People need to see death to become aware of the effect of drugs. After holidays, the dark side of the holidays showing the holidays side effects. For instance the dangers of being drunk (drive & die fights, crazy things [jumping off balconies], etc.) — the effects of illegal drugs, such as mental illness. Use wording like “Your holidays, not others nightmare + Enjoy your time, protect yourself, be careful, my friend”.	M	24	Spanish
6	Images that show what people are normally afraid to show. It also questions our way of thinking.		Violence, powerful, strong	I would use images that show the consequences of getting drunk, like car accidents,	F	25	Ecuadorian

				violations, and bad public behaviour. It helps individuals to see the impact that their behaviour have on others, such as their friends and family.			
7	A shocking image can be anything that blows your mind in some way. Some people only gives this attributes to the bad images, but some can be good and pleasurable.	Has to be something that stands out of real and daily life. It makes you want to share or show it.	Kill, impressive, amazing, and awesome.	Bad images of real-life cases that can make people that watch this advertisement realize that this could happen to them.	M	26	Mexican
8	Images that is against my values or tries to transmit something that does not represent me. I would define it as something that perturbs society.	I think shocking comes across as mostly content than signs. For example the other day I saw an image that said "legalize abortion" I understand that some people might be ok with it, but it may offend me. Another example are Nazi signs as a lot of people died.	Offending a religion. As well as images with swearwords.	I would probably interview people that have faced the consequence of getting drunk, taking illegal drugs and committing violence and the impact this had on their lives.	M	19	Spanish
9	Disgusting images, deformed bodies, cuts, bruises, burns, decay, maggots, cockroaches and other nasty insects emaciating from a person, food or animal.	Images that are bold, containing people that are terrifying sick, injured or blood. Red and purple, blue, murky white Malnourished children, beaten or injured.	Kids Suffering from cancer. You are disabled because been beaten by bullies.	Include sad music, horrid pictures, using age-appropriate actors so the audience can relate to it.  "Think about you" Do not do drugs or engage in violence". "You only have one life do not waste it in a foreign prison."	F	19	Nigerian

10	Images with newly born babies and illustrated violence.	Ad with blood and spit, red colour with bigger images.	Blood, death, racism, violence, discriminating culture, fear.	Use nasty side effects to create ads. Shocking images reinforces brainwash so may not be the ideal images to portray	M	25	Romanian
11	Images that help raise awareness, creative ideas that are connected to the targeted behaviour.	strong colours		Car accident, do not drink and drive there are people that love you, cold colours.	M	22	Egyptian
12	Uncomfortable imagery, visuals that are censored, e.g. cigarettes, racial, inequality.	Shock should contain visual, words and topic	Words/ sentences that will make people reevaluate	Downsides of the issues if people carry on such behaviours.	F	21	British
13	Images that are racist and have no empathy in addressing everyday issues such as, poverty, homelessness, homophobia.		Outrageous, desperate, distressing, appalling, dreadful, foul.	People in jail, injuries, how violence can affect lives when returning to their own country, show a prison abroad, stories of individuals in jail abroad, and how it affects local individuals.	M	22	British
14	Images that portrays fear.		Strongly worded messages	Image showing violence, drugs and they have to be taken to hospital.	F	21	Korean
15	Unpleasant images that make one feel uncomfortable.	Dull colour, racist, sentenced to death, bleeding, unhappy.	Sentenced to death.	Using a happy family to convince people not to go and get drunk as they could lose everything.	F	23	Vietnamese
16	Images of dead body, smoking and drink driving,	Big and bold shapes and colour, so they stand out.	Words like death, children without parents	Someone in a cell looking out to the beach. "Do not end your holiday this way. Deportation. Someone been thrown in the ocean to show if caught you will immediately be thrown out of the country.	F	21	British



17	Shocking images has to be simple, easy to remember and special.	Sign and shapes that differ from others.		Does not matter as people will carry on with their behaviour as they do not care, i.e. smokers.	F	21	Not disclosed
18	Nothing shocks me, but instead, I just find it disgusting or just plain gross.	To shock, it has to be unexpected and controversial.	Something peculiar and unexpected	It is free will so nothing can really stop the person; instead, ad should focus on how crime affects people.	F	21	Not Disclosed
19	Images that is uncomfortable and scary.	Bloody picture, unusual signs, dead lung.		Images of people spending holiday in hell "You decide where you spend your holiday."	F	20	Vietnamese
20	Ads that have a surprise element.	Bisexual ad	sexual wordings	I would surprise the audience.	F	21	Chinese
21	Picture of violence and killing of individuals	Racial abuse and discrimination image.	Words that are insulting and discriminating		M	20	Nigerian
22	Images with cancer heart disease, illness and fatal disease,	warning signs, dark and grey colours	Smokers die young Harm, Kill	Warning colours like red, yellow and using harm to convince people	M	21	Vietnamese
23	Images with sexual content, Condom and Death.		Words that connote death	Death	F	22	Vietnamese
24	Images which develop an extreme feeling inside the viewer that scares and causes thoughtfulness.	It arises from connections with death or frightening personal events.	Words that can be confusing or scary.		F	31	Luxembourgis
25	Images that has negative impact in the first view, so that it generates repulsion when you see it.	The contents could be Violence images, terrorist attack, extreme poverty, injuries, tragedies, etc.	Phrases related with abuse, sex, drugs, violence, feminism, etc.	Images related to the self-wellness: alternative ways of getting fun: Hike activity, tourism activities with friends, barbecue at home. Etc.	F	28	Peru
26	An image that makes you feel somehow connected to it, either in a positive or negative way. It tends to be distressful but, at the same time, hypnotizing.	It contains gore and taboo content and provokes mix feelings about it. It has emotional	Simple and powerful	I'd use shocking but elegant images of the loved ones of those targeted to show how	F	23	Spanish

		content and awakens guilt, discomfort or similar feelings.		they would be affected by an irresponsible act			
27	An image that is scary or disgusting and creates a negative feeling. Maybe the negative feeling is not fear but just awkwardness because it is something normally censured or not usually seen. Maybe showing violence, both physical but also psychological, for example, to racism, gender violence, or bullying, using elements such as blood, dark colours, or weapons.	Blood or wounds, Weapons and dark colours, use of strong words and expressions.	Offensive words related to racism, sexism, death or very graphic violence	I would try to make people feel sadness and responsibility instead of making them uncomfortable and disgusted. I will show them the effect on their family and friends because of their actions	F	20	Spanish
28	Images that make me feel uncomfortable and disgusted about a certain thing in a very short amount of time, but with high levels of stress within.	It becomes shocking when there is a strong message, a raw picture that makes you question the concrete theme and what the creator is trying to pass across.	Injustice, abuse, Can you stand this? Change now, stop this right now, join the fight, fight, rights, unfair, needed and help.	I will try to show the consequences of those actions for the rest of the society, and how bad that will affect you for the rest of your life, in order to create awareness. I will engage the people to understand that you still can have fun while on holidays, but you need to be very responsible for their actions because they can harm you and others, even the one you love for the rest of your life if you take a bad choice.	M	30	Chilean

## Appendix H: Control and Experimental Ads

### Advertisement 1





## Advertisement 2



## Advertisement 3



## Appendix I: Questionnaire

Dear Respondent,

My name is Augusta Evans, a researcher at the University of Bedfordshire, and I am researching the role that advertising plays in the tourism industry. I am interested in your perceptions and attitudes towards presented advertisements that could potentially be seen by tourists. Hence there are no right or wrong answers.

The survey is completely anonymous, and the information will be used only for educational and academic purposes. It should take no more than 20 minutes. Thank you in advance for your time.

### Section 1 – Travelling preferences

1. In a typical year, how many times do you go on holiday? (one option only)  
☐ 1-2   ☐ 3-4   ☐ 5 and above   ☐ I do not travel every year   ☐ I do not usually travel at all.
2. Please indicate which of these countries have you been to on holiday recently? (one option only).  
☐ France   ☐ Greece   ☐ Spain   ☐ Italy   ☐ Portugal   ☐ Other EU Countries   ☐ Other Countries
3. On average the maximum number of days you spend on holidays is. (2 options only)  
☐ one weekend   ☐ less than one week   ☐ one week   ☐ more than one week   ☐ two weeks  
☐ more than 2 weeks
4. With respect to touristic ads, which of these media do you come across frequently? (2 options only)   ☐ TV   ☐ Newspaper   ☐ Magazine   ☐ Billboards   ☐ Online   ☐ Mobile   ☐ Radio

### Section 2: Advertizing

5. Which of the following do you look out for most in an advertisement?  
☐ Heading   ☐ Logo   ☐ Picture   ☐ Video   ☐ Wordings   ☐ Others..... (please specify)

### Section 3 – Tourism Advertising

Now please pay some attention to the image below for some time

Please tick on one of the responses that reflects your thoughts and feelings.

6. On a scale of 1 to 10, how shocking did you find it?

<b>Non-shocking</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 6 <input type="checkbox"/> 7 <input type="checkbox"/> 8 <input type="checkbox"/> 9 <input type="checkbox"/> 10 <input type="checkbox"/>	<b>Shocking</b>
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7. On a scale from 1 to 5, to what extent do you agree/disagree that the advertisement is....

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
...scary	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
...frightening	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
...Vivid	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
...Intense	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
...Powerful	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
...Explicit (Definite)	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
...Gruesome (Horrible)	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
...Highly arousing (Highly exciting)	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□

8. On a scale of 1 to 5, how would you rate the advertisement overall?

<b>Unfavourable</b>	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□	<b>Favourable</b>
<b>Bad</b>	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□	<b>Good</b>
<b>Unpleasant</b>	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□	<b>Pleasant</b>
<b>Negative</b>	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□	<b>Positive</b>

9. On a scale from 1 to 5, how would you rate the advertisement in relation to tourism?

<b>Atypical</b>	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□	<b>Typical</b>
<b>Unusual</b>	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□	<b>Usual</b>
<b>Irrelevant</b>	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□	<b>Relevant</b>
<b>Unexpected (Abnormal)</b>	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□	<b>Expected (Normal)</b>

10. Please indicate to what extent you agree/disagree.

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
...protect myself from violent situations.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
...think about the amount of alcohol that I would consume whilst on holiday.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
... think about the likely consequences of my action.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
... recommend to my friends and families to avoid violent situations	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
... recommend to my friends and families to think of the consequences of their actions.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□

11. Please indicate to what extent which you agree/disagree.

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
...say positive things about the destination in the AD to others.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
...recommend the destination in the AD to others	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
...visit the destination in the AD in the future	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□

... avoid visiting the destination in the AD in the future	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
...not recommend the destination in the AD to others	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
... say negative things about the destination in the AD to others.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

#### Section 4 – About you

12. a) What is your gender? ☐M ☐F      b) What is your age? \_\_\_\_\_ years

13. What are your religious beliefs?

☐No religion ☐Christian ☐Hindu ☐Jewish ☐Muslim ☐Others.....  
(please specify)

14. What is your annual income for your family?

☐ Up to £19,999 ☐ £20,000- £34,999 ☐ £35,000-£49,999 ☐ over £50,000 ☐ Do not wish to disclose.

15. What is your ethnicity?

☐White British ☐Any other white background ☐Asian ☐Black Caribbean ☐Black African  
☐Others..... (please specify)

16. What is your educational qualification?

☐ Secondary school ☐high school ☐undergraduate ☐graduate ☐post graduate  
☐Others..... (please specify)

Please e-mail me if you have any further questions: [augusta.evans@study.beds.ac.uk](mailto:augusta.evans@study.beds.ac.uk). If you would like **to be informed** about the results of the research, please write your email (data given would be protected according to the data protection act)

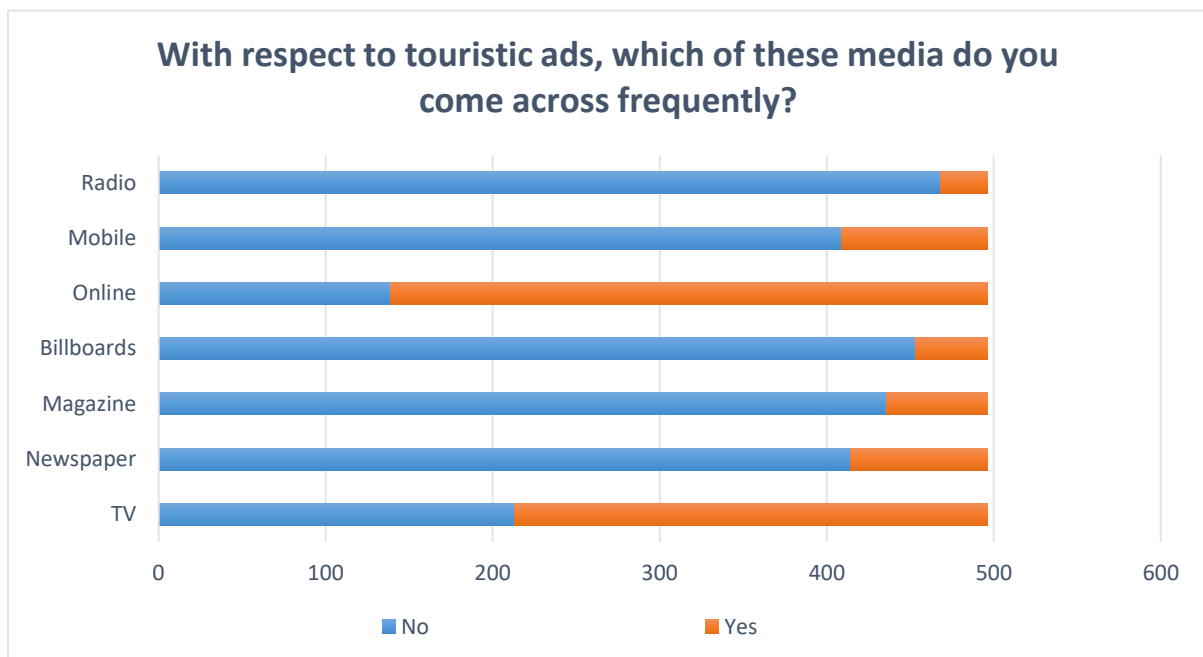
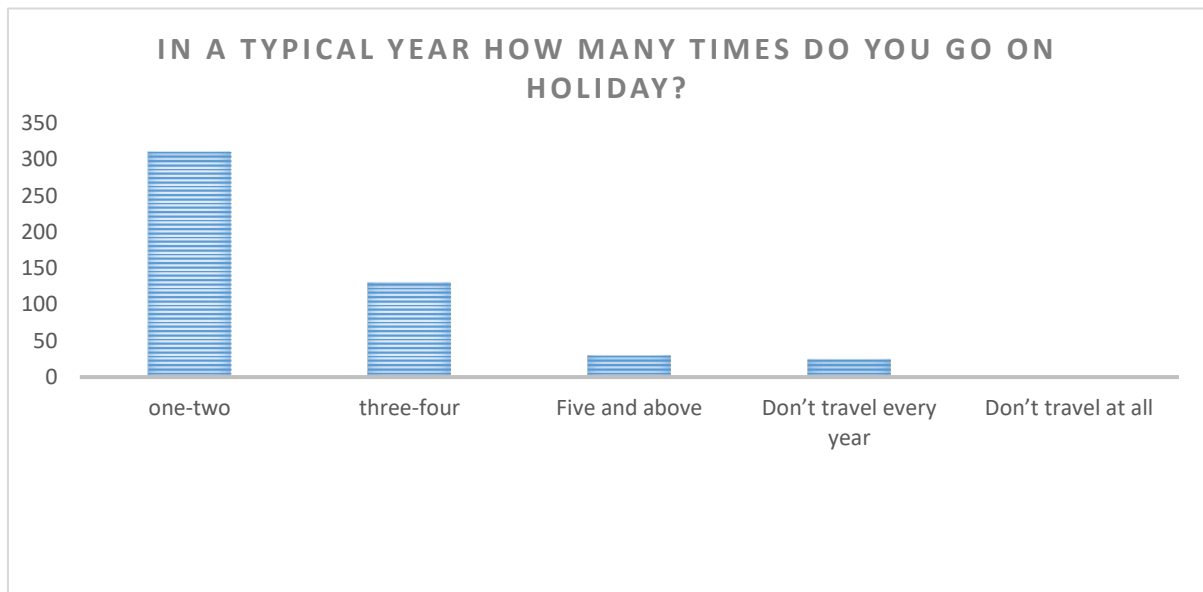
.....@.....  
**Thank you for your time!**

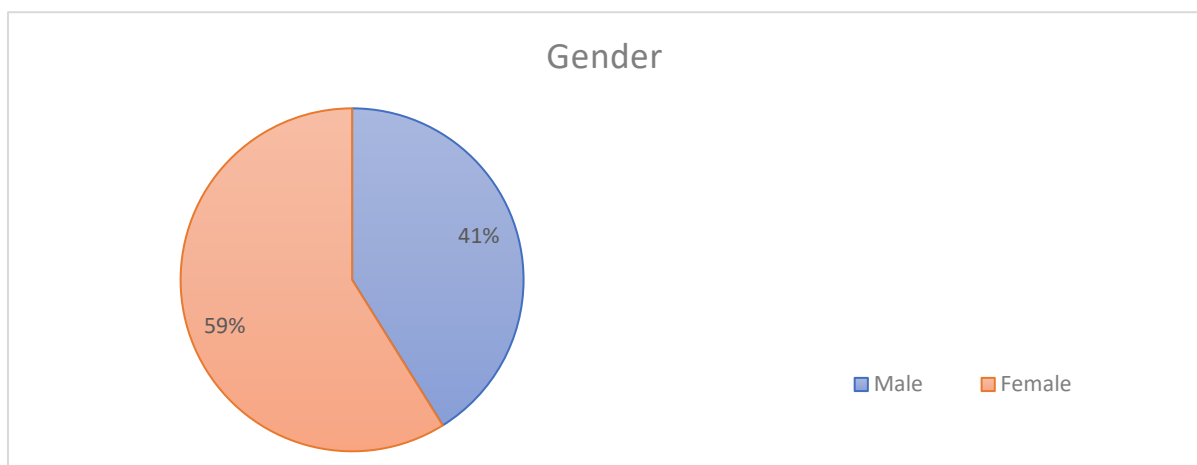
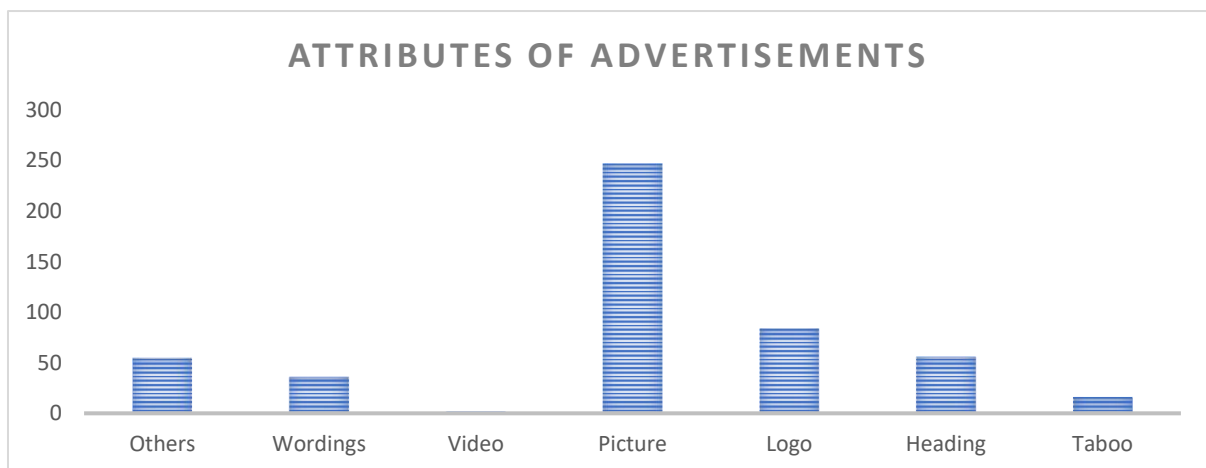
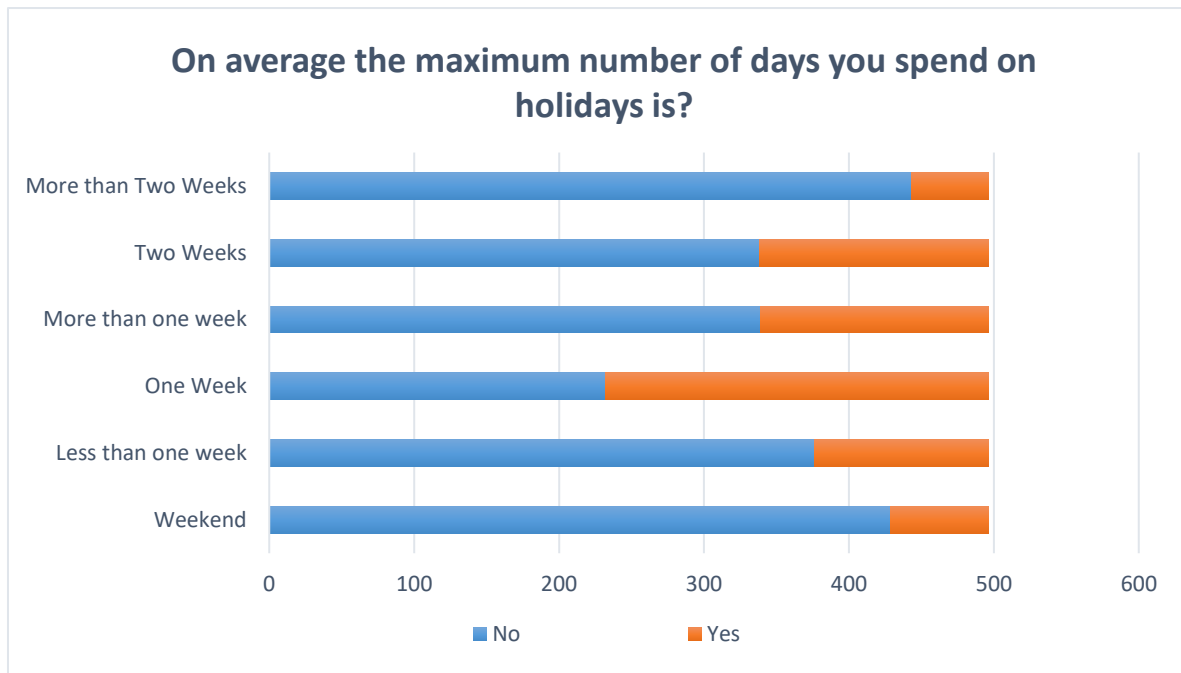
## Appendix J: Destinations With Tourists Misbehaviour

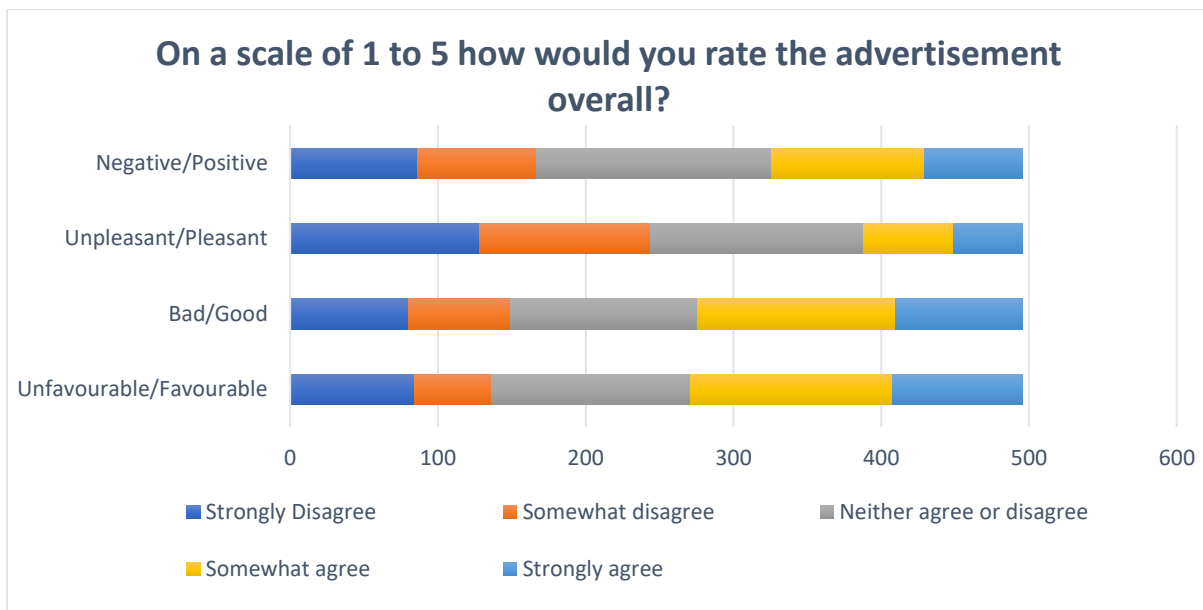
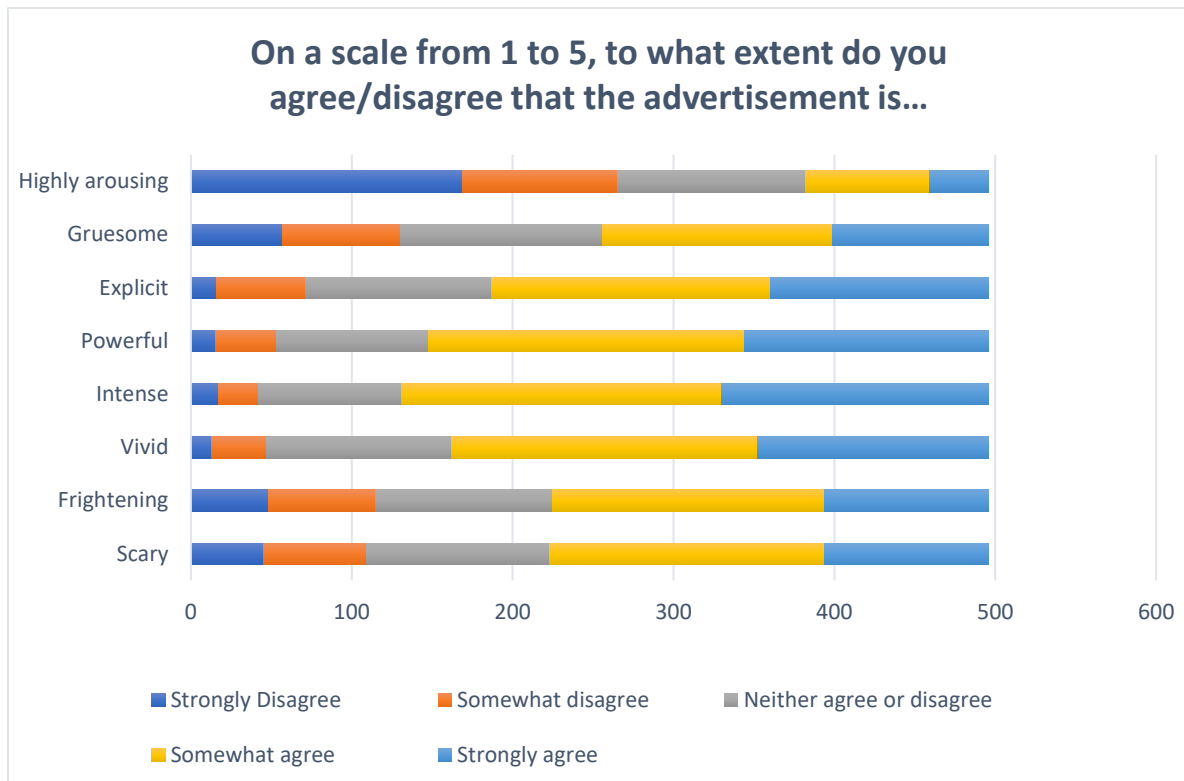
Unwanted Tourists Behaviours	Destinations they occur
<p>Having sex with strangers, sex with multiple partners, and unprotected sex, which in turn lead to contracting STIs/HIV (Sönmez <i>et al.</i>, 2003). Becoming involved with gambling or prostitution.</p> <p>Sex-related behaviours – promiscuity, sex without condom, sexual harassment.</p>	<p>Spain (Ibiza, Mallorca), Greece (Crete, Corfu, Kos, Rhodes, Zakynthos) and Cyprus (Ayia Napa), Bulgaria (Sunny Beach), Slovenia (Izola), Turkey (Alanya, Bodrum, Gümbet, Marmaris), and Egypt (Sharm el Sheikh) (Sönmez <i>et al.</i>, 2003). U.K, Fiji, Canada, USA, Daytona/Tenerife/Vegas.</p>
<p>Disruptions on public transportation, including flights, damaging public facilities or historical artefacts. Verbal assault, insults or threats) and physical assault (Calafat <i>et al.</i>, 2011). Interpersonal violence, For example, almost half the violence among young people reported in England and Wales takes place under the effects of alcohol (Flatley, <i>et al.</i>, 2010).</p>	<p>Balearic Islands (Spain), Algarve (Portugal), Venice (Italy), Crete (Greece) or Cyprus, Barcelona.</p>
<p>References to blood, body parts or secretions, orifices, especially urinary/faecal, gases, odours, disease, parasites, bodily harm (e.g., dismemberment), death and decay</p>	<p>Not commonly used in tourism ads, mainly used in smoking, cancer ads.</p> <p>U.K</p>
<p>The use of Recreational drugs and alcohol in large quantities (Duff, 2008)</p> <p>Intoxication (through drink and/or drugs) and driving (Calafat <i>et al.</i>, 2011).</p> <p>Spying or offending local religious codes.</p>	<p>UAE, France, Germany, Australia, Dubai</p>
<p>Swearing in public, obscene gestures and racists connotations (Dahl <i>et al.</i>, 2003)</p>	<p>Australia, Singapore, Japan, USA, U.K., Colorado</p>
<p>Blowing nose loudly in public, dressing in an offensive way (Loi and Pearce, 2012) verbal or sound acts, e.g. Gargling noisily after a meal and burping, Verbally or physically abusing service personnel in hotels and other service operations (Loi and Pearce, 2012).</p>	<p>WWF ads</p>
<p>Trafficking and possession or criminal acts which include murder and robbery. Also, financial crimes which include embezzlement, bribery or corruption (McCartney, 2014). Acts such as drug smuggling, Paedophilic crimes or people smuggling, Acts of terrorism (McCartney, 2014).</p>	<p>Philippines, China and Thailand, USA</p>
<p>Ignoring social customs</p>	<p>Turkey, Dubai, Kenya, South Africa,</p>



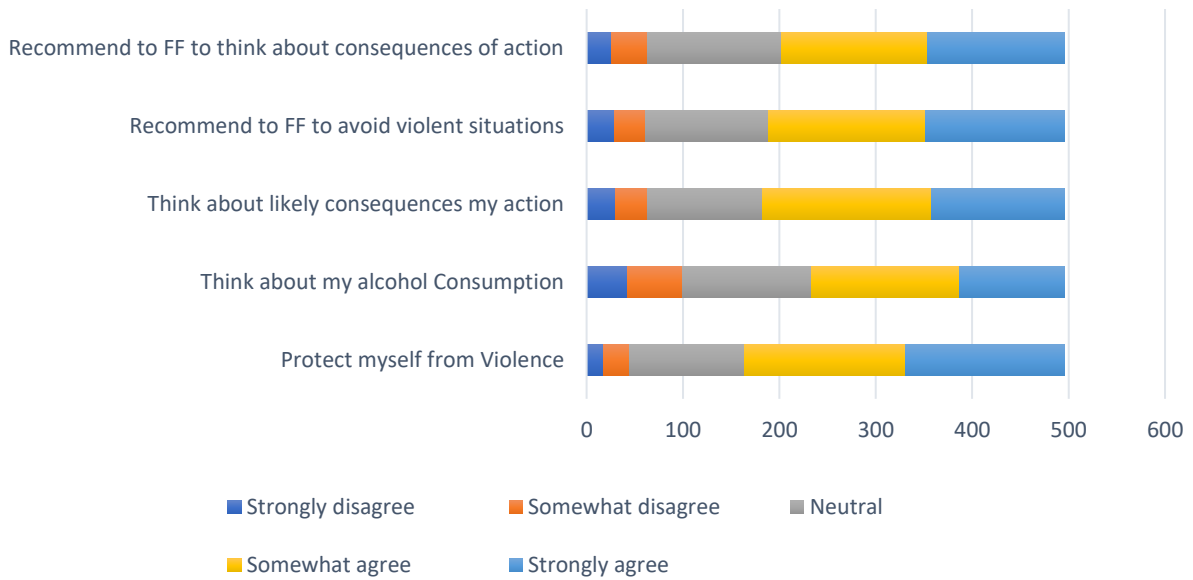
## Appendix K: SPSS Data



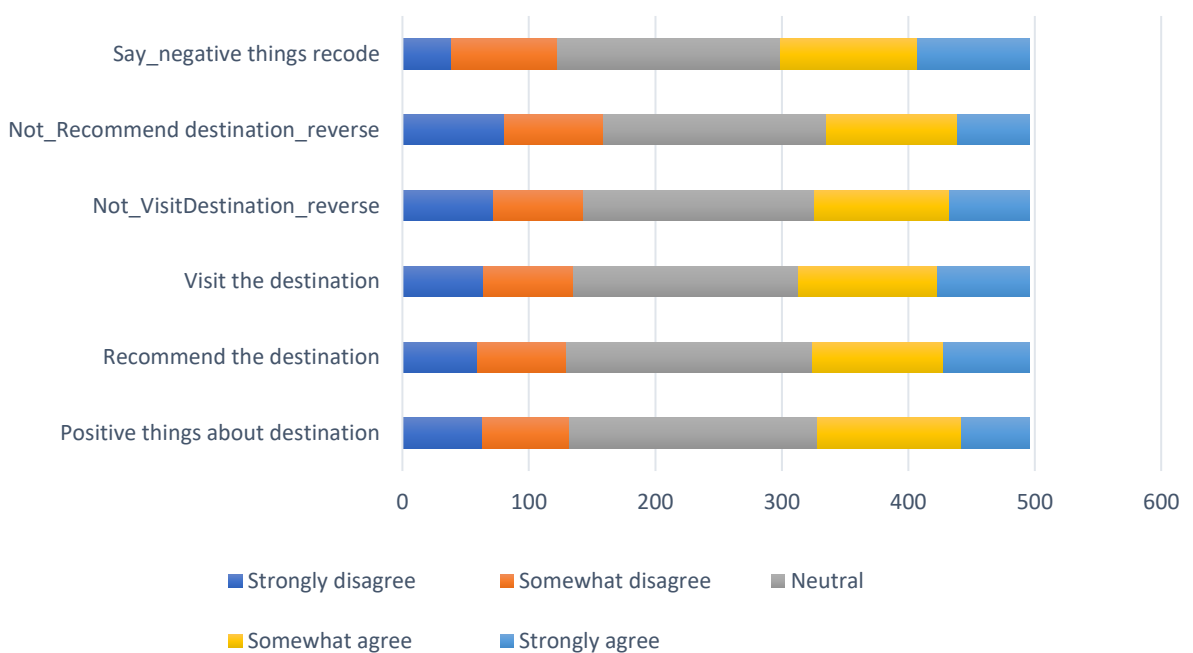




### The advertisement would make me :



### As regards the destination I would:



## Appendix L: NVivo Screenshots

Shock Advertising in the tourism industry perspective from destination manager and tourists.nvp - NVivo Pro

FILE HOME CREATE DATA ANALYZE QUERY EXPLORE LAYOUT VIEW

Workspace Item Clipboard Format Paragraph Styles Editing Proofing

Nodes Look for Search In Nodes Find Now Clear Advanced Find

Nodes

- Nodes
- Cases
- Relationships
- Node Matrices

Sources

- Nodes
- Classifications
- Collections
- Queries
- Reports
- Maps
- Folders

Nodes

Node Name / Sources References Created By Created On Modified By Modified On

Nodes

- Annoying Tourists Behaviours
  - Ant
  - Da
  - Dru
  - End
  - Ille
  - Litt
  - Ov
  - Ris
- Appeal
- Attribu
- Barriers
- Effect o
- Effectiv
- Factors
- Key Qu
- Manag
- Measur

Code At Enter node name (CTRL+Q)

78 Items Sources: 25 References: 72 Unfiltered

Shock Advertising in the tourism industry perspective from destination manager and tourists.nvp - NVivo Pro

FILE HOME CREATE DATA ANALYZE QUERY EXPLORE LAYOUT VIEW

Document External Memo Audio Video Framework Matrix Sources

Node Case Relationship Nodes

Create As Node Create As Cases

Folder Search Folder Set Collections

Source Classification Case Classification Relationship Type Classify Cases from Dataset

Nodes

- Nodes
- Cases
- Relationships
- Node Matrices

Sources

- Nodes
- Classifications
- Collections
- Queries
- Reports
- Maps
- Folders

Nodes

Node Name / Sources References Created By Created On Modified By Modified On

Nodes

- Annoying Tourists Behaviours
  - Management of Tourist Behaviour
  - Reasons for differences in tourist behaviour
- Attributes of shock advertisements
  - Advantages of Shock Advertisements
  - Disadvantages of shock advertisements
- Barriers of Shock Advertisements
- Effect of Shock Advertisement on Destination Image
  - Negative Effect
  - Positive Effect
- Effectiveness of Ad campaign measurement
- Factors Influencing Application of Shock Advertising
  - External Factors
  - Internal Factors
- Impact of Shock Advertising on Destination Image
  - Key Quotes
- Measurement of shock advertisement campaign
- Tourism Advertisement audience
  - Adventure Enthusiasts
  - Families

37 Items

Shock Advertising in the tourism industry perspective from destination manager and tourists.nvp - NVivo Pro

FILE HOME CREATE DATA ANALYZE QUERY EXPLORE LAYOUT VIEW

Document External Memo Audio Video Framework Matrix Node Case Relationship Create As Node Create As Cases Folder Search Folder Set Source Classification Case Classification Attribute Relationship Type Classify Cases from Dataset

Sources Nodes Items Collections Classifications

**Nodes**

Nodes Cases Relationships Node Matrices

Sources Nodes Classifications Collections Queries Reports Maps Folders

Name	Sources	References	Created By	Created On	Modified By	Modified On	
Tourism Advertisement audience		9	16	AI	09/08/2017 15:49	AI	11/08/2017 17:53
Adventure Enthusiasts		2	2	AI	11/08/2017 18:21	AI	11/08/2017 15:02
Families		26	35	AI	09/08/2017 15:59	AI	11/08/2017 18:00
Food and wine connoisseurs		1	1	AI	11/08/2017 18:20	AI	11/08/2017 10:23
History and culture lovers		1	1	AI	11/08/2017 18:21	AI	11/08/2017 10:24
Matured Adults		26	152	AI	09/08/2017 16:00	AI	11/08/2017 18:01
Religious Travellers		1	1	AI	11/08/2017 18:20	AI	11/08/2017 10:24
Young Adults		26	122	AI	09/08/2017 15:59	AI	11/08/2017 18:01
Tourism Advertisement Medium		6	13	AI	09/08/2017 15:47	AI	11/08/2017 16:59
Billboard		1	2	AI	09/08/2017 15:48	AI	11/08/2017 16:24
Direct marketing		4	4	AI	10/08/2017 11:45	AI	11/08/2017 16:18
Mobile		1	1	AI	10/08/2017 11:44	AI	10/08/2017 11:45
Online		26	62	AI	09/08/2017 15:48	AI	11/08/2017 17:53
Print		26	59	AI	09/08/2017 15:48	AI	11/08/2017 17:36
Radio		26	35	AI	09/08/2017 15:48	AI	11/08/2017 16:44
TV		26	48	AI	09/08/2017 15:48	AI	11/08/2017 10:37
Tourism Advertisements		17	21	AI	09/08/2017 16:00	AI	11/08/2017 18:00
Information ads		12	14	AI	09/08/2017 16:00	AI	11/08/2017 17:24
Promotional Ads		15	17	AI	09/08/2017 16:00	AI	11/08/2017 18:00
Shocking Ads		0	0	AI	09/08/2017 16:01	AI	09/08/2017 16:01

AI 37 Items

14:23 14/08/2017